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ABSTRACT

This work proposes to show that second language acquisition can take place when adults surround themselves with a target language and have ample opportunity to participate in its use. The hypothesis tested is that methods and strategies utilized in the acquisition of a second language for adults should be essentially the same as those manifested in the acquisition of one's first language. Two English-as-a-second language programs of fifteen weeks each, one for an experimental group and one for a control group, were conducted. The program for the experimental group was based on informal, real-life language situations. The program for the control group was based on traditional methods of teaching second languages, including the use of a standard textbook. Both groups were evaluated by "structural" and "communication" tests. In comparing the test results, no significant difference was evident between the experimental and control groups in the pre-program testing or in the post-program structural testing. Both groups made significant gains in second language acquisition. However, the experimental group made significantly greater gains as measured by the communication test. Recommendations are given regarding how an existing or proposed second language program might be improved by utilizing principles evolving out of the success of the experimental group. (Author/CLK)

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LANGUAGE ACQUISITION: A RECAPITULATIVE MODEL

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ABSTRACT

This work proposes to show that successful second language acquisition can take place when adults merely surround themselves with a target language and have ample opportunity to participate in its use.

The study attempts to test the hypothesis that the methods and strategies utilized in the acquisition of a second language for adults should be essentially the same as those manifested in the acquisition of one's first language. This hypothesis is doubted seriously by many educators, among them Robin Lakoff, who maintains that evidence indicates that one cannot expect to recapitulate first language learning (Lakoff 1969:140).

Two programs of fifteen weeks each--one for an experimental group and one for a control group--were conducted to test the hypothesis. The program developed for the experimental group was based on informal, real life language situations. The program developed for the control group was based on traditional methods of teaching second languages including the use of a standard textbook.

Both groups were evaluated by "structural" and "communication" tests. In comparing the test results, no significant difference was evident between the experimental and control groups in pre-program or in post program testing. Both groups made significant gains in second language acquisition as

measured by these tests. However, the experimental group made significantly greater gains as measured by the communication test.

Since one group of randomly selected adults did make significant progress in acquiring a second language using only the methods and strategies that first language learners appear to use perhaps the conclusion is warranted that other adults can acquire second languages the way children appear to acquire their first language, granted that the quality of environment and opportunity are comparable.

Recommendations are given regarding how an existing or proposed second language program might be improved by utilizing principles evolving out of the successful experimental group.

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Most people who learn a second language well do so as a result of odd circumstances and not of sequential teaching.

-Illich (1970:18)

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Purpose of the Study

In carrying forward this research, the researcher is taking up the challenge he made in 1971 that teachers of foreign languages should develop many of their own teaching methods based on the most advanced thinking regarding the principles of learning as determined in the fields of linguistics and psychology, rather than wait for linguists and psychologists to develop these methods (Gallagher 1971:4). This challenge also was given in 1973 by Brickmaier (1973: 1290).

The researcher's language teaching experience and study which began in South America some sixteen years ago and which have continued to his present teaching position at the Hawaii Campus of the Brigham Young University, lead him to the conviction that foreign language "teaching" in its present practices is a particularly misnamed art. Is it a question of a human language being "taught"--or rather is it not more properly a question of a human language being acquired? The researcher believes that the teacher can provide only the proper linguistic environment for acquiring the language. Such a viewpoint is accepted widely in many fields and levels of school teaching and learning, and he believes that it can be applied successfully to the field of second language teaching. His own classroom activities, as well as those of his fellow faculty members, seem to work often in spite of, rather than because of, the classroom "teaching" activities.

Because of this problem, the investigator tentatively concludes that a language teaching reform once again may be in order; and that such reform should begin with a clear understanding of how students acquire language from their environment--i.e., the street, the home, and even the classroom. There is now a new grammar of English, and with it an implied rationalist view of langauge learning pioneered by Chomsky (1965:25,30) and others, resting on the innate ability of the mind to organize human utterances into meaning. This view seriously challenges the behaviorists' (Skinner 1957) theory of language learning.

The researcher believes that this later challenging rationalist view should give rise to new thinking in second language teaching, because it characterizes the acquisition of language as something much more mental than other animal behavior, elevating man with his species-specific language faculty in a way that no behaviorist could ever have done with his learning theory based on repetition. As such it may provide teachers with whole new areas of thought regarding teaching methods and curriculum development.

In this study the researcher postulates a second language pedagogy which treats language learning as an ordinary, usual, normal human activity, taking place automatically within the proper environment. It makes little and infrequent, if any, use of grammatical sequencing, frequent overt correction, or language drills. Instead, it aims to have students deduce and internalize the "rules" or generalizations of the new language through a natural and spontaneous presentation.

Definition of Terms

Active memorization: Engaging in observable activity to cause the retention of linguistic terms.

Ad hoc explanations: Unplanned, informal linguistic explanations given to second language students in answer to specific questions or problems.

Drill: A language exercise, often oral, designed to teach a specific linguistic point, usually pronunciation or grammar, by repetitious instruction, and participation on the part of learners.

Exposure: The act of placing a first or second language learner in a human language environment. Synonym: subjecting, presenting, contact with or association with, experiencing, being presented with, et cetera.

ELI: The English Language Institute, a division of the Communications and Language Arts Division of the Brigham Young University, Hawaii Campus, in Laie, Hawaii.

ESL: English as a Second Language.

First language: One's mother tongue.

Generative transformational grammar: A theory of linguistic description which may be stated in terms of rules which will generate--i.e., supply structural descriptions for (as outputs and transforms) or relate underlying forms to surface forms by means of transformation rules. Its primary goal is explanation of linguistic phenomena rather than the description of such.

Grammatical structuring or planning: Organizing a second language course according to notions about the relative complexity of grammar items.

Grammatical: Correctly formed, acceptable to native speakers of the language in question.

Interesting: Relevant to the hypothesis under question; Synonym: nontrivial, nonobvious, nonself-evident.

Language acquisition: The attainment of linguistic competence, by one's own efforts, without observable physical activity.

Language acquisition device (LAD): A hypothetical neurological device or system which--on the basis of an input of human language--produces a grammar of that language.

Language learning: The attainment of linguistic competence by engaging in observable physical activity, often through classroom and/or textbook study. Synonym: language study.

Overt correction: The observable and open, obvious act of bringing speakers into conformity with grammatical use of the target language by requiring the student to repeat the correction.

Participation: To engage in activities which require language use; to join with others in linguistic activity.

Passive memorization: The retaining of linguistic items in the brain without initiating any observable action.

Rule: A hypothesis which captures a generalization about a linguistic phenomenon.

Rule acquisition: The non-conscious acquisition of a generalization hypothesis about a linguistic phenomenon without initiating any observable action.

Second language: Any additional language(s) acquired subsequent to one's first language.

Target language: The language being studied or acquired.

TESL: Teaching English as a Second Language.

The Hypothesis

Because of the fact that adults usually fail to learn adequately to speak second languages using methods outlined for adults; and children usually succeed, using children's methods, the hypothesis being tested proposes that adults may learn as well as children without grammatical structuring, drills, or frequent overt corrections; instead, using the methods children successfully employ by being in contact with real-life language and participating in its use.

The questions this study hopes to answer are:

(1) Can adults learn a second language essentially the way children learn language, i.e., without grammatical

planning, drills, and frequent overt correction?

(2) Is it possible to apply successfully, in an ordinary university classroom situation, the hypothesis that successful learning of a spoken second language largely follows the same procedures as those taken by children in learning their first language?

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Children's Acquisition of Language

All human beings are physiologically alike, as far as the production of speech sounds is concerned. People differ in having variously shaped faces, as much as they differ in other aspects of bodily build. Physiological differences of lips, throat, and other parts of the vocal tract affect the voice quality of children's speech; and this is part of the individuality of each person's voice. These individual differences do not affect one's ability or aptitude to acquire and speak any particular language.

No child talks without having heard the utterances of fluent speakers (Fodor 1966:105). It has been shown time and time again that a child learns to speak the language of those who bring him up from infancy. In most cases these are his biological parents. He is especially influenced by his mother. His first language is acquired from his environment, not from physiological inheritance. Adopted infants, whatever their race or physical type and whatever the language of their actual parents, acquire the language of the adoptive parents. Parents remain the primary influence until the child's fifth or sixth year (LeFrancois 1973:75).

Careful examination of the speech of mothers to their children reveals that in speaking to their children, mothers speak in a marked speech pattern which is considerably slower than their normal adult speech, and which is couched in much shorter sentences (Snow 1972).

Speech is species-specific to mankind. Physiologically, animal communication systems are of many sorts. The animal sounds superficially most resembling human speech are the imitative cries of parrots and various other birds. Almost all mammals, and many other animal species, make vocal sounds and thereby keep in contact with each other through a rudimentary sort of communication; but only man can communicate a novel utterance to another fellow man.

This human characteristic of novel speech pertains to all of the world's languages, including those of the so-called "primitive" peoples. The fact that language is species-specific to man argues for an essential cerebral component; and in the last two hundred years certain aspects of speech control and use were found to be located in a particular hemisphere of the human brain (Penfield and Roberts 1959:195).

No one inherits the ability to speak a particular language, but all normal human children are born with the ability to acquire the language which is common to the group in which they grow up. They appear to bring into the world an innate "faculty" for language acquisition, language use, and grammar. Grammar here refers to an intrinsic collection of hypotheses of the generalizations or "rules" of a language from a random contact with it (Fromkin and Rodman 1974:316).

The child very soon is able to construct new, grammatically acceptable sentences from material he has heard. Unlike the parrot, he is not limited to the mere repetition of utterances having been heard. By late childhood, through progressive stages, he has acquired the grammatical, phonological structure of the language and some vocabulary. Observation shows that this is substantially the same situation the world over, among literate as well as illiterate communities, and that the same number of years of childhood is taken up by the process throughout the thousands of cultures on the planet. Thus, it would appear that all languages are roughly equal in complexity and in difficulty of mastery (Strevens 1974: 2-3).

Currently under debate is the part played by and the nature of man's innate ability. Until the 1950's scholars considered language acquisition to be carried out largely by analogical creation from observed patterns of sentences occurring in utterances heard and understood by the child. Such a view, much favored by persons inclined to behavioral interpretation of human learning processes, stressed the very evident differences among the structures of different languages, particularly at a "surface" level. Little attention was given to any underlying mental activity; the emphasis was on speech (Fries 1945:6).

Since the late 1950's, a number of linguists have been placing much more emphasis on the inherent grammar-building ability of the human brain which is activated by contact with utterances of a human language, in such a way that it fits the utterances into predetermined general categories and structures. Such linguists, inheritors of the Seventeenth- and Eighteenth-Century interest in "universal grammar," put their stress on the underlying similarities of all languages, more especially in "deeper" levels of grammatical analysis.

Nineteenth- and Twentieth-Century educators and linguists have devoted much study to first language acquisition. Nevertheless, very little is known about a child's linguistic competence or what he may know. At this writing one can report only on children's linguistic performance or what he says.

According to linguist Julia Falk (1973:246), the results of many studies of children acquiring language show that there is now strong, albeit indirect, evidence that children are born with an innate language ability. The evidence rests largely on the observation that from a finite number of utterances overheard, the child is able to produce a number of utterances without an upper limit. This observation led to the conclusion that the infant has some kind of neural language acquisition system or device (LAD) which can produce a greater output than its input (Chomsky 1965:32). The observation carries the further conclusion that human language is a rule-governed activity (Brown and Fraser 1964:45-50). These rules, developed by the hypothesized language acquisition device, account for the possibility of an infinite output from a finite input. That is, from the speech which is overheard, the child's language acquisition device constructs hypotheses about regularities in the language. Each hypothesis may be called a rule. With a rule the child can, by choosing different words, produce a much greater output than the input from which the rule was induced (McNeill 1970:70).

Although a person usually acquires his first language as a child, there are instances in which it has been acquired by adults. During their childhood, these adults were deprived of any linguistic experience. They usually were abandoned or lost and, typically, were raised by animals. Thus, they entered early adulthood without any language competence (Fromkin and Rodman 1974:20). Because these cases are so very rare and accurate information on their linguistic environment is not available, it is difficult to do more than speculate about their language development.

However, in 1970 in Los Angeles, an adolescent girl called Genie was discovered, who, during her first thirteen and one-half years, had been confined to a small room with only nominal human care and no language contact. Since her discovery, her linguistic progress has been monitored carefully. After four years it is now apparent that she, as a young adult, is learning to speak and understand her first language in a manner quite similar to the way children acquire their first languages (Curtiss 1973).

Hatch (1975) reported that there are several cases of such linguistically deprived children who go unnoticed in larger cities. After attaining adulthood, they escape from their confinement to acquire their first language from the street. It is well-known that all normal children, including many who have mental or physical abnormalities, succeed in acquiring their first language completely by hearing it spoken in ordinary, non-school, life situations. The rapid progress children make in the acquisition of language has been substantiated by numerous studies, including that of McCarthy (1954) and McNeill (1966). McNeill stated that grammatical speech does not begin before one and one-half years of age, but the basic process seems to be complete by three and one-half years, or the short span of twenty-four months.

Psycholinguists have sought to understand the process of a child's growth through changes in his grammar by conducting observational and longitudinal studies of small samples of children. The greater part of this work has come from three sources: (1) Brown and his colleagues at Harvard (Brown and Bellugi 1964; Brown and Fraser 1963; Fraser, Bellugi and Brown 1963); (2) Ervin and Miller at the University of California at Berkeley (Ervin 1964; Miller and Ervin 1964); and (3) Braine at Walter Reed Army

Hospital (Braine 1963).

A child's language changes through several stages from the babbling and telegraphically abbreviated speech of the early two and three-word sentences to a form of mature utterance which includes the use of grammatical transformations. This suggests that the load on the child's memory brings pressure to change his grammatical rules, bringing his "rules" into conformity with the adult language community. The child appears to reduce this pressure by resorting to new grammatical devices that agree with linguistic universals (McNeill 1966:34-69). It is hypothesized that all languages, to a great degree, come from universal patterns and share a number of formal and substantive universal qualities. The child hears the locally appropriate use of the linguistic universals and seems to discover the grammatical rule and linguistic universals in adult utterances. Expansion of child speech occurs as children bring their speech more and more into conformity with the adult linguistic community, as parents and other mature speakers continue to model mature speech (Brown 1964:78). Seemingly, the adults assume that the child can comprehend mature grammatical usages even though he is not yet able to produce them in his speech (Slobin 1964).

Children begin their vocal careers in the first two months of life with what may be called the crying and cooing stage. This stage does not appear to play a language-specific role in vocal language acquisition, since it is a well-known fact that congenitally deaf children and normal children born into homes where no vocal language is used all cry and coo.

Sometime between the fourth and fifth month children begin the babbling stage. This stage, like the crying and cooing stage, appears to be universal--as all children babble. Babbling children from different linguistic environments all sound alike (McNeill 1970:20).

From the tenth to the twelfth month children enter a stage of language acquisition which might be called late babbling. There is a definite break between early and late babbling stages. From late babbling on, children impress one that they are attempting to communicate. The intonation and tone patterns found in the child's linguistic environment begin to appear in his babbling during this stage. The children in this stage also appear to recognize their names and to understand and respond to simple commands such as "No!" Some psychologists now maintain that the beginnings of language are to be found in the late babbling stage (Sutton-Smith 1973:147).

Somewhere between the eighth and eighteenth month children utter their first word and enter what has been called the holophrastic stage. This first word is often "mama" or "papa" conforming to a rule of maximal contrast. That is, a maximally closed consonant (i.e., the vocal tract is completely stopped up or closed) is followed by a maximally open vowel (Jakobson 1958:47).

In the holophrastic stage, children give single utterances which appear to have several meanings. For example, mama, reported by Leopold, refers to food generally and also means, "This food tastes good," and "I am hungry" (McNeill 1970:22).

Anywhere from the eighteenth month to the second year, children enter what has been called the telegraphic stages, so called because communication in these stages is somewhat like the abrupt language an adult speaker uses in sending messages by telegraph, using only those words which are completely necessary to convey meaning (Brown and Fraser 1963:158).

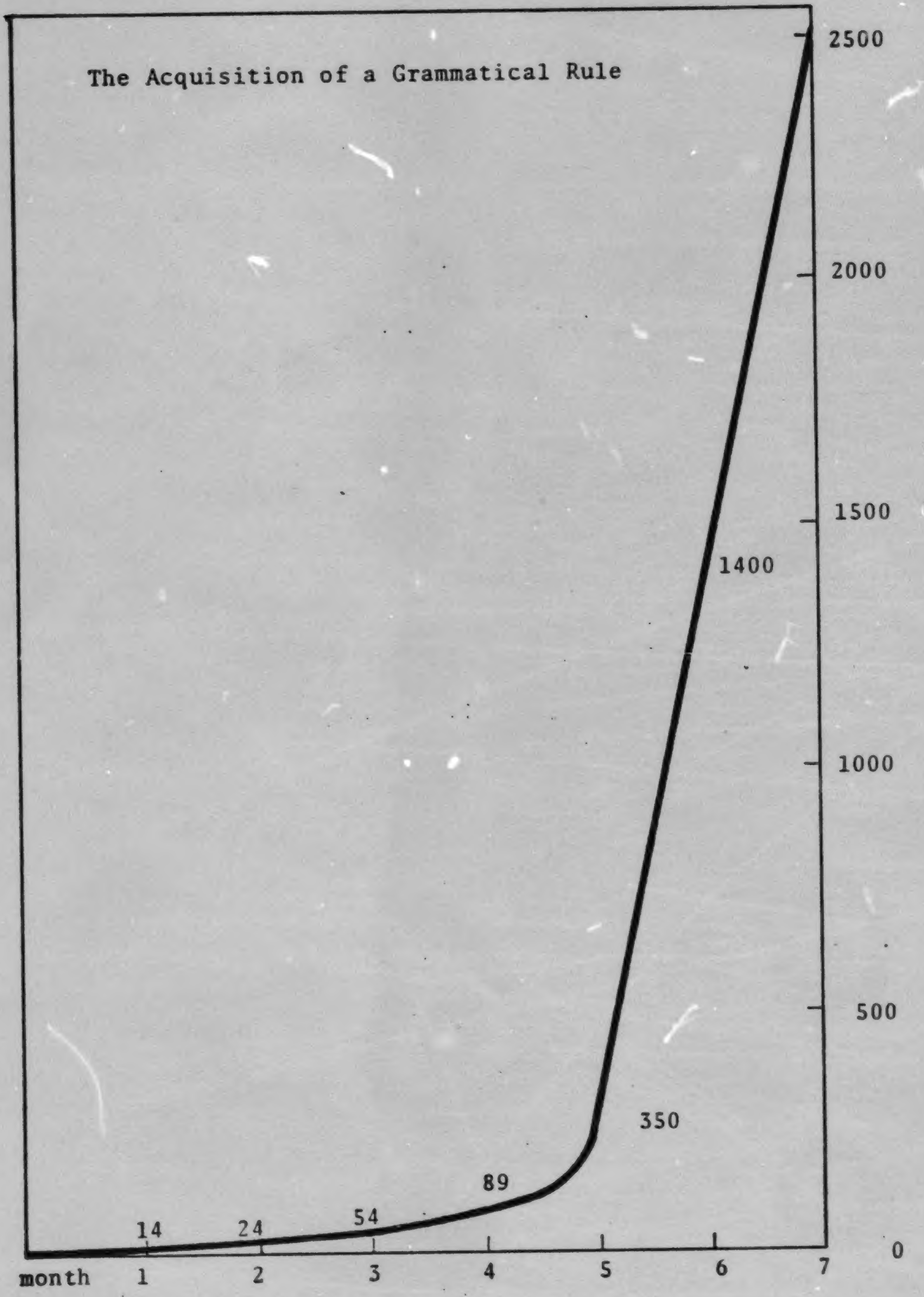
In the early telegraphic stage, children use certain two-word combinations, such as "pretty boy," "my coat," "this baby," "all-gone milk," "pretty coat," et cetera (McNeill 1970:16-36; Braine 1963; and Ervin-Tripp 1974:112).

Martin Braine monitored the speech of a two-year-old child named "Gregory." Braine's observation covered a seven-month period as Gregory began the telegraphic stage of language acquisition. At the end of the first month, Gregory had fourteen such two-word combinations. At the end of the second month Gregory had twenty-four combinations. After three months he had fifty-four. By the end of the fourth month Gregory had eighty-nine separate two-word combinations. Thus, he nearly doubled the number of combinations in each succeeding month for four months. Then something happened. By the end of the fifth month Gregory had nearly a fourfold increase from the previous month with three hundred and fifty combinations. At the end of the sixth month he had another fourfold increase (Braine 1963).

The following chart, Acquisition of a Grammatical Rule, will depict by line graph this rapid increase in Gregory's repertoire of two-word combinations during a four-month period of time.

The chart shows the dramatic increase in the number of these combinations by the end of the fourth month. It is believed that during this fourth month Gregory acquired his first unconscious grammar "rule" or generalization. This "rule" is apparently an outgrowth of the load on Gregory's memory, causing him to develop a hypothesis (or a "rule") of the regularity he observed with the use of these two-word combinations (McNeill 1970:70). In other words, Gregory had memorized passively eighty-nine or so combinations before his mental language-acquisition apparatus noted the regularity of occurrence of the words in these combinations and a rule to properly combine these words was developed passively by Gregory's language acquisition system.

The acquisition of this first rule, common in all children, marks the beginning of the late telegraphic stage. This rule, roughly stated, is as follows: Any one of certain words called "pivot" words--such as "all gone," "my," and "bye-bye," et cetera, can be combined with any one


The Acquisition of a Grammatical Rule
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of other words called "open" words--such as "Daddy," "TV," "June," "baby," et cetera. The fact that any pivot word can be combined with any open word means that the acquisition of any new lexical item with this rule increases by the number of known lexical items the possible number of new combinations.

It is small wonder that Braine stopped counting the two-word combinations after the seventh month.

Late telegraphic speech begins in children somewhere between the twelfth and the twenty-eighth month with a vocabulary of three hundred to four hundred words and three or four grammar rules. The possible combinations run into the tens of thousands. Late telegraphic speech closely mirrors adult telegraphic messages. Typical sentences of this stage are: "Where Daddy go?"; "I play my toy."; "We go town." The late telegraphic stage lasts until all prepositions, auxiliaries, inflections, affixes, and other formatives used in mature adult speech are acquired. This acquisition usually takes place by the sixth year. There are still some aspects of adult syntax which are not learned until late in childhood (C. Chomsky 1969:1-5).

Acquiring a grammar appears to be a constant process of readjusting and adding to a previous grammar. Each theory is refined with frequent and constant hypothesis testing until the child arrives at a grammar which gives him the greatest cooperation with speakers in his environment (King 1969:72-75).

Children often learn the correct past tenses of the irregular or strong verbs; then they appear to have acquired a hypothesis which may run something like: "Add /t/ or /d/ appropriately to verbs for past activities." This rule is applied to all verbs, and children produce walked and kissed; also now such incorrect forms, such as goed for went and runned for ran are produced. Later children learn that the "strong" verbs are exceptions to their earlier hypothesis about the regularity of verbs in the past tense, and again correctly produce went, ran, et cetera (Ervin 1964 and Herriot 1970:113).

Inflections are developed rather uniformly. Bellugi (1964) reports acquisition in the following order: (1) progressive (-ing); (2) plural (s); (3) regular past (-ed); (4) possessive (-'s); and (5) third person singular (-s). This order was the same for children who had very different learning rates. Furthermore, it was related only weakly to the frequency of the occurrence of these features in the speech of the children's mothers. McNeill (1970:83) suggests grammatical complexity may influence the order of acquisition more than frequency of occurrence in the child's linguistic environment.

Negation is first learned in telegraphic speech where the negative element, no or not, is simply added to the beginning of each sentence. Later the negative element is "transported" around the "subject" and do comes into play where the main verb of the sentence is not Be or a modal (Klima and Bellugi 1966).

Questions are first made by the addition of a rising intonation. Later they are made with Wh question words without do. Finally the use of do comes into play for both yes-no questions and Wh questions (Brown et al. 1968 and Klima and Bellugi 1966).

All children go through all these stages and follow very similar strategies and on to mature adult speech having only attentive contact with the language. This does NOT imply a non-mental experience nor non-participation in activities which require the use of the language. This does imply that there has been considerable feedback from native speakers as to correctness and appropriateness of the child's utterances. No "formal" explanations are given (McNeill 1970:108-112).

The amount of contact and participation is critical. When there is no contact with, or participation in a language, no language is acquired; but when there is even the smallest amount of contact with the language, and even the slightest opportunity to participate in activities requiring the language, children learn to speak. Children of deaf parents, who only occasionally have had contact with speaking friends and relatives who visit and talk with each other and with the children during the visits, learn to speak (Campbell and Wales 1970:255).

All children proceed through all the stages of language acquisition at their own pace, sometimes spending only a week in one stage, and perhaps a year in another. No evidence exists to show that any amount of parental prodding can push a child along more rapidly through the stages than he is willing or able to go.

Child educator, John Holt, suggests that while children learn to talk by experience in real-life speaking situations, they are permitted to make "errors" as they pass through phases of development, and are corrected only with some "on the spot" explanations. If their language learning were left up to adults, no doubt the adults would have a carefully planned language course with sufficient drills, grammatical reviews, and tests to monitor the child's language progress (Holt 1967:53-55).

In all stages of language acquisition there appears to be a division in the acquisition strategies.

One such division occurs in the strategy of learning by imitation and memorization of specific utterances for specific situations. Informants at both early and late stages of language acquisition have been known to produce phrases, often called "formula" or "automatic" speech, which could not be accounted for through the productive grammar rules they were using in their normal speech up to that time (Braine 1963 and Huang 1972). These memorization phrases appear to be accumulated until memory load may force the formation of a generalization or a "rule" about a certain set of phrases.

This "rule acquisition strategy" is by far more important than the strategy of phrase memorization. It is claimed that the rules of grammar and phonology are unconsciously matched in the language acquisition device (LAD) to a set of universal rules, or are eliminated from or added to the universal set of rules which are claimed to be innate in every human being (Chomsky 1965:4 and Langendoen 1970:2,3). In language acquisition these rules become productive with the awakening of the LAD in response to attentive exposure to human language (McNeill 1970:70-71).

Of the two strategies, the rule acquisition strategy accounts for the overwhelming majority of the linguistic phenomena observed in human speech--i.e., novel, creative speech. It is to this latter type of language ability that generative transformational linguists have devoted much of their analyses. However, they have generally ignored the fact that memorization and imitation do play a role in acquisition of "automatic" or "formula" speech, which may in turn trigger rule acquisition.

Language information acquired through the memorization strategy appears to be localized to both hemispheres of the brain (Van Lanker 1973) much like other kinds of knowledge acquired by imitation (Wilkins 1972:161). On the other hand, all language information governed by rules appears to be nearly always localized in the one cerebral hemisphere; in 96 percent of individuals it is localized in the left hemisphere. This localization of the creative language center in the left hemisphere appears to signal the completion of acquisition of a first language at approximately five and one-half years for the majority of children (Krashen 1974).

The hypothesis that comprehension of features of language--passive control--occurs earlier in language development than production of the same features--active control--is significant. It means that every feature of language is first under passive control and only later under active control (McNeill 1966). Studies by Fraser, Bellugi and Brown (1963) showed that:

(1) Comprehension exceeded production in every grammatical contrast, often by a large margin; and

(2) Comprehension exceeded imitation in every contrast except one, again often by a large margin.

The results support the assumption that passive control appears earlier in language development than active control.

In an experiment by McKinnon (1965) conducted with school-age children some light was thrown on language activity of school-age children. He found that:

(1) The language activity which ranked first in students who attained superior results on language tests (independently adjudged) required the child to look at the picture on the card and try to compose an appropriate corresponding sentence before playing the card on a Language Master; he could play the card as often as he wished in order to learn the "correct response";

(2) The method which ranked second in achieving superior results used a pictorial representation of the sentence presented, providing an opportunity to practice the sentence with a concrete presentation of its meaning; and

(3) The least effective method was analogous to the pattern practice method of the language laboratory, whereby a sentence is presented and the learner must repeat it. He was to listen to the sentences on a Language Master machine and imitate them as often as he wished until he thought he could say them very well, at the same time trying to think what was happening as he heard and said each sentence.

The results of McKinnon's observations suggest that endless repetition of model sentences was not as effective for development of language skill with school-age children as was allowing them complete freedom to create their own utterances.

In his description and discussion of this experiment, Carroll (1966:40) suggests that the most important conclusions to come from this experiment are:

(1) The learning of grammar is best done with referential support, i.e., with the aid of semantic information concerning the content and relations of the particular grammatical structures; and

(2) Active use of the language is more effective than passive practice in language learning.

Chomsky (1959), in an analysis of linguistic theory, refutes the behavioral view that:

(a) Language is a habit structure with a stock of fixed patterns acquired through practice and used as a basis for analogy and generalizations; and

(b) Linguistic behavior consists of "response" to "stimuli."

Chomsky (1959) stated that the most obvious property of normal linguistic behavior is that it is stimulus-free and innovative, i.e., it is characterized by a creative property of language use. He suggested that the linguist must try to discover the rules and underlying principles of organization of the grammar which all speakers have internalized unconsciously. This is one step in determining (1) the intellectual organization which is a prerequisite for language acquisition; and (2) the process by which this intrinsic organization in cognition takes place with children.

This work attempts to add to the body of linguistic knowledge regarding the process of adult language acquisition, as it may relate to the activities which children appear to follow.

This review of the literature and research related to the nature of language and language acquisition deals primarily with studies of the basic processes by which a child acquires language. The recent research done by psycholinguists raises many questions regarding commonly accepted notions of the way language is learned.

The most significant contributions are the findings that children acquire language in stages of linguistic development by attentive observation of language, i.e., contact with it, and by participation in the language community.

Second Language Teaching

Understanding the many facets of second language teaching is made easier by a study of the experience of Francois Gouin.

Gouin, a native of France, was a teacher of Latin. In the ~~late~~ Nineteenth Century he wanted to learn to *speak* German. Believing that a language was a new set of explicit grammar rules, he set about memorizing a German grammar book. After he had memorized the book and drilled himself on its 248 irregular German verbs, he went to the Hamburg Academy in Germany and discovered that he could not understand the spoken language. He concluded that a language was not only grammar but root words, so he returned to his drills and memorized 800 German roots. Again he found he could not understand spoken German. He then reasoned that a language must be in conversation, so he purchased a book promising to teach German in ninety days with such phrases as: "Have you any shoes?" and "Yes, I have some shoes." After diligently memorizing this book for three weeks, he still could not understand any German. At last he resolved that language must be a set of words, so he set about to "memorize" an entire German dictionary of 30,000 words. This he accomplished in thirty days, but still could not understand a single word of spoken German. Still unable to believe his memorization of words would not teach him German, he eventually "re-memorized" the dictionary three times. He returned to France still not being able to speak or understand spoken German even though he had memorized the German grammar, irregular verbs, roots and a dictionary of the language (Gouin 1880).

Incidentally, when Gouin returned home he found that while he was in Germany his three-year-old nephew had learned to speak French without any apparent effort.

Whereas Gouin was unable to learn spoken German by rigorous self-imposed drills of the segments of language he felt were critical, his three-year-old nephew acquired spoken French with ease. Language acquisition appears to be essentially a mental process involving a neural language acquisition system which organizes spoken language into meaningful utterances. Language learning implies the study of a language and often the memorization of grammatical rules and vocabulary items.

In this review and throughout this study, the concern is with the acquisition rather than the learning of first and second languages. Strategies for learning to read and write second languages, such as Syriac, Latin, Akkadian, Celtic, et cetera, are not considered in this study.

Like Gouin, some language teachers have based their teaching methods on what they have been told about the nature of language--often by linguists whose goal was to describe language, not to outline teaching methods. Believing that language is words, teachers have their students copy and memorize vocabulary lists. Believing that languages are learned via imitation and analogy, teachers have their students mimic "key" phrases over and over again and wait, often in vain, for the analogy to set in. Believing that language learning is habit formation, teachers assign students to language laboratories for verbal drilling one hour per day, five days a week, as if practice of tongue muscles were the answer. Believing that languages, like plants, develop and flower, then decay and die, teachers fight language corruption and decay with rules, warning students to say: "it is I," and that two negatives make an affirmative, as though the teachers truly misunderstood sentences such as "I don't got none" (Hatch 1972).

Under the traditional method of teaching second languages, the grammar rules of the second language were presented "systematically" in paradigms. Students often memorized these grammar rules and paradigms and did written exercises involving them. Students also did a great amount of translating using a bilingual dictionary. They also read aloud passages from the literature of the second language. Conversation was postponed until the students had mastered "the basics."

The urgencies of the Second World War created the need quickly and efficiently to learn many of the so-called exotic languages of Asia and the Pacific as well as many seldom-studied European languages. The Linguistic Society of America was asked to develop the Army Specialized Training Program of Languages to accomplish this end. The American linguists now had an opportunity to develop a pedagogy for language teaching based on their notions of the nature of language.

For the first time linguists were asked to develop a second language pedagogy. This dependency on linguists by language teachers has persisted from the 1940's to this day (Hall 1966:23 and Kreidler 1972).

After the Second World War, with the success of the Army Specialized Training Program of Languages (ASTP), for several years many teachers felt secure that the method developed for these schools was the answer to their problems of trying to teach foreign languages. These teachers developed textbooks in which language was carefully segmented and neatly classified. The sound system (the phonology) of the language to be taught was defined in detail. These teachers also had a comparison of the phonology, morphology and syntax of the students' first language(s) and the target language to be taught. Depending upon the thoroughness of the comparison, this contrastive analysis of the two languages isolated gross, and occasionally subtle, differences between the two languages. It was assumed that at the points of differences the first language would interfere with successful second language learning unless teachers were prepared for the problem (Lado 1957:2-7).

Because language was felt by the American linguists to be learned by imitation and memorization, the focus of the Army Language Schools is on the imitation and memorization of long dialogues--thirty lines or so--followed by planned conversations based on those dialogues. Grammar points are covered in parenthetical notes when the point discussed occurs in the dialogue. Vocabulary comes from the dialogues. Native models provide the model for pronunciation. Reading and writing are postponed and then presented without any particular methodology (see Trevino 1944).

Perhaps the most influential American linguist of the early Twentieth Century was Leonard Bloomfield. In 1933 he published Language. In it he explicitly adopted an empiricist view of language acquisition and a behaviorist approach to language study eliminating all references to mental or conceptual activity in the name of scientific objectivity. This book influenced most modern textbook writers until the 1960's (Lado 1968:210).

Charles Carpenter Fries, a student of Bloomfield, accepted Bloomfield's position that "the command of a language is a matter of practice...copy the forms, read them out loud, get them by heart, and practice them over and over again day after day, until they become entirely natural and familiar. Language learning is over-learning; anything less is of no use." (Bloomfield 1942:12)

Fries based his language teaching method, first adopted by the University of Michigan and later by language teachers around the world, on minimal pair--i.e., two words differing in only one "sound"--drills and "structural"--grammar and vocabulary--drills. These drills were often one-item substitution drills which attempted to give second language learners new pronunciation, grammatical and lexical habits. There were occasional dialogues which were based on the drills. Reading and writing were postponed (Fries 1945:6).

The American structural linguists, like Bloomfield, in their quest to be "scientific," felt that they could accept only as language that which could be observed readily and measured. Since the activities of the mind are not observable, speculation as to its function in the acquisition of language was not permitted by the American linguists. Structural linguists agreed with the behaviorist psychologists in their theory that language is simply the relationship between a stimulus and a verbal response (Wilkins 1972:160-164).

Because sounds are measurable and phonic articulations are observable, these two factors became the area of prime concern to the American linguists. This development in linguistics closely paralleled a similar movement in American psychology. This movement, called behavioral psychology, deals with directly observable phenomena--i.e., the behavior of the thing under observation. These two supporting disciplines espoused a theory of language acquisition which claims that a language is the observable sounds; and since language learners are observed in the environment of language speakers, languages must be learned by memorizing the words in structures through imitation. This is accomplished by rewards for acceptable verbal responses to sense stimuli on the part of the language learner.

Breaking slightly with Fries, the proponents of the Audio-Lingual Method reintroduced the longer dialogue as one of the two central parts of their model--the other being short grammatical explanations followed by extensive structural drills which formed the bases for the dialogues. In these, vocabulary came from the dialogues. Writing is viewed as a visual representation of speech. Therefore, it is felt that it is not necessary to postpone this skill. Grammar exercises may be profitably written as well as orally drilled. Generally, writing was delayed. Physiological explanations and phonetic drills were used to develop correct pronunciation (Brooks 1960:146 and Lado 1964).

This Aural-Oral approach--recently more commonly called the Audio-Lingual approach--to second language teaching stressed the training of the ear to hear accurately and the tongue to imitate correctly the speech behavior presented as a model. The student's first contact with the foreign language is the spoken word. Listening to a new utterance with attempts to understand is stimulated by the teacher's use of techniques to help the student associate his perception of the utterance with its meaning.

The methods of teaching associated with the Aural-Oral or Audio-Lingual approach range over a broad spectrum from the earlier methods conforming to the mechanistic Stimulus-Response learning theory to the more recent experiments stressing a more "meaningful" approach.

Experiments (Marks and Miller 1964; Miller 1964; Mehler and Miller 1964) show that the subjects recalled a meaningful sentence better than an anomalous but syntactically correct sentence, and a syntactically correct sentence better than scrambled forms.

Dykstra (1967) stressed the importance of bringing together the emphasis on situation and meaning and the emphasis on linguistic pattern and native-like accuracy, thus creating new and better supporting materials for teaching and learning.

Other studies (Keisler and Mace 1965; Keislar, Stern and Mace 1966) show that the groups for which training in speaking preceded training in listening were superior in listening comprehension to those for which training in listening preceded training in speaking.

Sequencing, not recency, appeared to be responsible for these results. These findings seem to contradict the hypothesis that comprehension of features of language--passive control--occurs earlier in language development than production of the same features--active control.

Rivers (1964) examined the theory behind the Audio-Lingual approach and its major assumptions about the foreign-language learning process, which assumptions were examined in the light of behavioral psychological learning theory. A wide range of linguistic theory is associated with the Audio-Lingual approach and likewise a range in psychological theory is associated with it. Rivers identified the major assumptions of the Audio-Lingual approach as those which characterize the early development of the structural period which dominated linguistic thinking for many years. She argued that the behaviorist school of psychology was the one upon which the theory and methods of the Aural-Oral approach were based.

Among the proponents of the Audio-Lingual approach, there is great variation in the beliefs and operational techniques related to this assumption stated by Rivers. As was pointed out by the Australian National Advisory Committee in the Report on the UNESCO Regional Seminar held in Sydney (1967), the Audio-Lingual approach is not in itself a method. For example, it may follow the direct method which excludes the use of the learner's language in the teaching-learning process, or it may seem more economical of time and effort if the learner's language is used to some extent.

The assumption in the Audio-Lingual approach is that "foreign language learning is basically a mechanical process of habit formation" (Rivers 1964:31). The point of view that language is a set of habits developed by drill on structures, by reinforcement of correct performance with rewards, and later followed by generalization, is contrary to McKinnon's (1965) findings, Carroll's (1966) discussion, and Chomsky's (1959) theory. Chomsky's emphasis on the characteristic creative aspect of normal language use contradicts this assumption. The question is: If creativity is a normal aspect of language, how can it be developed through a mechanical process of habit formation?

It should be noted that in the major psychological theories (Rivers 1964) guidelines for the maximum effectiveness of drills involving repetition of the right response include:

(1) Responses to cues approximating those in a real-life situation;

(2) Practice where it is effective as communication in a variety of situations;

(3) Avoidance of overlearning which fixates stereotyped responses and reduces the students' ability to select among possible alternatives; and

(4) Practice which helps the student understand in what

way the response is "right," thus facilitating transfer to similar situations.

(5) Measurability of learning as the student demonstrates his ability to use the right responses to communicate in a variety of contexts in unstructured situations.

Rivers (1964) questions the argument that since listening, speaking, reading and writing are the natural order by which a child learns his native language, this is the best order for learning a foreign language. She states that the two cases are very different and that the processes are different. She suggests that the strongest argument in favor of some visual support for the aural presentation in the early stages comes from studies of organization in perception. She makes a plea for the readmission of the graphic symbols representing the spoken language to the classroom in the early stages of learning. She is referring here to high school students.

The evidence of interrelatedness in learning among the various aspects of the communication skills is bringing about a searching look at the program for teaching the communication skills. The sequence of teaching listening, speaking, reading, and writing strictly in that order has been questioned, and experimentation with more integrated materials and procedure has been stimulated (Peterson 1967; Davis 1967).

The view held by Audio-Lingual teachers has been that curriculum materials for the study of a foreign language should be prepared by linguistic experts with a thorough understanding of the structure of that language and a careful scientific analysis of the contrasts between the learner's language and the target language. Only such linguistic experts could assign the proper sequence to the presentation of new grammatical structures in the second language. This view has now shifted (Krashen, in press).

Regarding the practicality and necessity of heavy reliance on contrastive analysis, Wolfe (1967) pointed out that contrasts within the second language might present problems more serious for the learner than contrasts with certain structures of the native language. Wolfe suggested that the important contrasts to be mastered were those inherent within the target second language. He also said (Wolfe 1963) that many problems would be eliminated by operating entirely in terms of natural contrasts within the particular language system, and that drilling contrasts between the target language and native language were not necessary if structures were adequately drilled within each language system.

Present-day work on contrastive analysis has shifted from language contrasts to analyses of errors second language learners make (Dulay and Burt 1974).

To summarize, the present thinking on contrastive analysis tends to be that it is not necessary, and more fruitful results in determining acquisitional hierarchies of second languages come from an analysis of actual errors made by second langauge learners rather than predicting what those errors will be from an analysis of the contrasts between first and second languages.

Dykstra (1967) has investigated a different approach to the teaching of English as a second language. He said that for twenty-five years educators in this field have believed that separate materials are required for each linguistic or cultural background, basing these materials on contrastive analysis of English and the indigenous language and on observation of classroom problems. He points out, however, that in many areas of the world the implementation of this belief is practically impossible. Nigeria has 250 indigenous languages, New Guinea 750, the Philippines 70, and many classrooms in the United States have any number of languages which may change from time to time. There is a shortage of qualified scholars to make adequate cultural and linguistic descriptions and a shortage of curriculum writers to prepare materials on the basis of such analyses.

Dykstra went on to say that the similarities of English materials prepared for students of different language backgrounds suggest that there are fundamental common problems. Only inconclusive evidence has been found on the comparative results of the use of material prepared specifically for one culture when used in another. Seemingly, good materials prepared for speakers of one language work quite well with speakers of other languages. There are relatively similar as well as totally different elements among cultures, and there are language universals which run throughout the study of all languages.

The English language materials developed by Dykstra provide the basis for an environment in which students may communicate novel messages in English in small groups in a multiple-unit class organization. The songs, physical education activities, reading and writing exercises also include opportunities for the meaning-related use of language. In communication, the pupil has a purpose superordinate to that of language practice which he can accomplish only by the use of recently presented or newly learned language forms. His hearers must respond overtly to the speaker's linguistic signals by selecting one of a wide range of potential responses. The programming of content utilizes all of the structural contrasts of the language for communication purposes, with grammatical sequencing which presents no more than one new form at a time (Dykstra 1967).

A well-known non-academic second language course is the Berlitz method. Maximillian D. Berlitz developed his method in the United States following the "direct method" tradition which was already known in Germany and France.

According to Stieglitz the most important aspect of the method is the guided conversation in the target second language from the first day. Vocabulary is presented in the conversations by the use of realia, antonyms and "series" development. Pronunciation comes through imitation by hearing native models. It is felt that reading will "take care of itself" (Stieglitz 1955:300).

Grammatical explanations are given only at the intermediate and advanced stages, since they are presented in the second language itself. After these "brief" explanations, the Berlitz students are drilled in the grammar form immediately heretofore presented. These drills, which often take the form of elliptical questions, admittedly have little to do with the current conversation being presented. However, from the first day there is a conscious systematic development of grammar forms. Writing also is postponed (Stieglitz 1955).

Notwithstanding the theoretical challenge to the basic assumptions underlying the Audio-Lingual method by Chomsky (1959) and others, second language teaching today continues to be dominated by the belief that adult second language students must "enroll" in a course of study which has been grammatically planned (Diller 1974). This course must present the adult student with thorough grammatical explanations in an order recommended by the author of the course. Phonological contrasts between the first and second languages must be isolated and drilled in order to eliminate interferences from the first language. Grammatical paradigms must be drilled at native speaking pace alone and/or with specific item substitution, and no error must go uncorrected in order to establish the correct new habits of the target language (Wardhaugh 1970:67; Kreidler 1972:467-468; and Moulton 1975:9).

Much second language teaching today does not appear to have made significant improvement on the method of structuring and drilling Francois Gouin imposed on himself nearly one hundred years ago. Regrettably, many adults, since that time following similar methods, have failed to learn second language as did Gouin.

The Hypothesis of Newmark and Reibel

In 1963, at the annual meeting of the Linguistic Society of America, Newmark and Reibel first made the claim that acquisition of a first language is the same as the acquisition of a second language.

Their presentation, slightly revised, was published in 1968 in the International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching (Vol. VI, No. 2, 1968, pp. 145-164). The revision has been reprinted in Readings in Applied Transformational Grammar (Lester 1970). Excerpts from the original are quoted below.

> ...students studying a foreign language have a right, it seems to us, to be taught in the most efficient way possible. We think the necessary and sufficient conditions for learning appropriate language are present if we teach only particular, non-structurally organized, instances of language use. Now, since few linguists would deny that at some point, the student must be taught to produce language appropriately, we claim that there is a heavy burden of proof on anyone who declares that it is most efficient to approach language teaching indirectly by teaching structure separately from use, leaving it largely to the student's intelligence to figure out how to attach the latter to the former.

In our examination of the literature on second language teaching, written either by linguists, or by teachers who claim a linguistic orientation, we have noticed a certain uniformity in the structure of the theoretical statements that typically precede the discussion of the particular pedagogical problem in question. In the cases we have in mind, the theoretical prefaces may vary in length from two or three paragraphs, as in the case, say of an article in Language Learning, to whole chapters of a book. Occasionally, of course, the argument will not be so explicitly formulated, but will be found scattered around throughout the whole discussion. Whatever the format selected for the presentation of the theoretical background, whether implicit or explicit, its structure resolves itself into two parts.

The first part, which we may call First Principles, is presented in the form of a sequence of propositions alleged to form part of Linguistic Science. The way in which these statements of First Principles are supposed to be part of Linguistic Science is not often explicitly spelled out, but in general the propositions are to be taken either as fundamental assumptions of linguistic science itself, or as findings of the investigations of linguistic science. A statement such as "Language is structured" may in one set of first principles figure as an assumption of linguistic science, while in another discussion it is to be considered one of the findings of linguistics.

The second part of the theoretical preface then typically consists of statements concerning principles or details of pedagogical practice, claimed to be the logical consequences of the First Principles.

A number of the pedagogical recommendations found in the present "linguistically-oriented" language teaching literature and the teaching programs they claim to justify seem to us logically and empirically faulty. We can put our objections succinctly:

1) The pedagogical recommendations do not follow logically from the first principles.

2) The recommended pedagogical procedures can be shown empirically to be in themselves neither necessary nor sufficient to the learning process.

For example, we may find statements of first principles such as:

1) Language is a set of patterned speech habits.

Followed by its putative pedagogical consequence:

1a) Structural drill is an essential requirement in any efficient foreign language teaching program.

And the principle:

2) An important cause of difficulty in second language learning is the set of structural non-congruencies between the learner's native language and the target language.

Followed by the claim that:

2a) Only materials based on a contrastive analysis can most efficiently overcome the interference in the foreign language behavior caused by the native language speech habits.

The logical flaw that underlies the empirically inadequate recommendations arises when linguists draw from the fact that languages are structured, and structured differently, the specious conclusion that the language teacher or course writer must himself impose the grammatical ordering of the pedagogical material, and that the closer the ordering of the material follows some particular linguistic theory, or successful grammar, the more efficient and more successful the learner will be in using the language (which is, after all our final criterion of the success of our language teaching).

The excessive preoccupation with the contribution of the teacher has distracted the theorists from considering the role of the learner as anything--but a generator of interference; and preoccupation with grammatical structure has distracted them from considering that learning a language means learning to use it.

To turn now to our own notion of language learning, let us begin by considering the obvious fact that in just that case where the most successful language learning takes place--namely, in the child--the material from which the child learns is not selected in the interests of presenting discrete grammatical skills in an orderly fashion. On the contrary, the child is exposed to an extensive variety and range of sentences selected for the appropriateness of meanings, rather than for their power to illustrate a particular grammatical principle. The child then proceeds in an incredibly short time to induce a grammar of the language that enables him to do what no grammar of any linguist has yet achieved. Thus, we must assume that the child is somehow capable of making an enormous contribution of his own. We may call this contribution the language learning capability. The language learning capability is simply what makes it possible for a child to observe a number of particular acts of speech

> in context and to perform new acts of speech that seem to the onlooker to imply that the child has formed general rules for producing intelligent, appropriate speech. It is unknown what the neurological mechanisms are that account for his linguistic accomplishment; but the fact that the child can produce new intelligent speech after observing only particular language acts of varied linguistic structure in contextual wholes is evident to all.
>
> This capability, among other things, accomplishes what it is assumed the course writer or linguist tries to accomplish for the adult learner, namely it organizes and stores a wealth of structurally diverse input language data in such a way as to be available for future language use (speaking, hearing, reading, writing).
>
> Now as regards the differences between the first language learning of the child, and the second language learning in the adult, nothing is easier and more common than to point out that the adult is not a child, and then to construct teaching programs which will guarantee that the adult is made to be a different kind of learner from the child. But we see no evidence in descriptions of child vs. adult differences that demonstrates that the adult's capability is qualitatively different from that of the child (Newmark and Reibel 1963; emphasis added).

Literature Supportive of Newmark and Reibel's Hypothesis

For many years linguists have supported statements such as the one found in the paragraph which follows, written in 1900 by Henry Sweet.

> The learning of vernacular sounds by imitation is a slow and difficult task, but the condition of beginning in infancy, having nothing else to do, and, above all, of the mind being unhampered by conflicting associations with sounds of other languages, are so favorable, and the inducements to learn are so strong, that the imitation is in most cases practically perfect (Sweet 1900:19; emphasis added).

Sweet's claim was that children have little to do but acquire speech. Sweet also asserted that the child is unhampered by interference ("conflicting associates") from any other language, as adults are in acquiring a second language. He further stated that children have greater motivation ("inducements") than adults. These claims have been echoed by linguists and educators ever since, especially perhaps in recent years (Moulton 1966:2; Politzer 1965:8; DiPietro 1971:vii, Pei 1966:3).

Consideration will be given to these claims as they relate to Newmark and Reibel's hypothesis (see last section). The first claim made by Sweet is that the child has much more time to learn the language.

Against this claim Newmark and Reibel argued that the time both adults and children spend in acquiring language is not known, and the attention each gives may affect any time difference. Newmark and Reibel stated:

> This argument is difficult to evaluate, since we do not have reliable information about how much time the child actually does spend in learning a language. From casual observation, however, it does not appear that the young child spends as much time in language contact as would be required to explain the vast differences between the language-using abilities of native four-year-old children and those of college students after two years of language courses. The small child is also busy with other things--such as sleeping and solitary playing--and it is the rare mother who can bear to keep a one-way conversation going without long breaks during her periods of contact with the child. There is also a question of whether the adult might not gain as much from his ability to docus his attention over a period of time as the child gains from his admittedly longer, but less concentrated contact with the language.
>
> More important, there is a striking difference between the kind of linguistic proficiency children have immediately and that of classroom students (including those under the tutelage of a linguist)--a difference that has nothing to do with the amount of time spent in contact: what the child knows of the language he can use (perhaps only in listening and comprehending, perhaps also in his own speech), while the classroom student's knowledge seems all too often to be unavailable for his own immediate use. To put it in other terms, the child is fluent in his language very early, increasing in fluency in direct proportion to his knowledge of the lan-

> guage, while the classroom student's "knowledge" of the language may allow him to do everything with the language except use it. And notice that the classroom student does not need an inordinate amount of time to learn things he sees immediate use for; e.g. he quickly learns to say and respond to short greetings or to utter curses and dirty words in the new language, though from the analyst's point of view, these may be linguistically complex. Psychological rather than linguistic acceptability of utterances seems to be crucial in determining how much time is needed to learn them (Newmark and Reibel 1963).

As late as 1966, some linguists claimed that the amount of time children and adults devoted to language activity accounted for differences between them. For example, William G. Moulton in his A Linguistic Guide to Language Learning wrote:

> One of the most striking aspects of a child's language learning is the fact that he spends so much time at it. ...It is a little sad to realize that the child practices so much, because this is something which no adult language learner can ever hope to match--he has too much else to do (Moulton 1966:2).

Children have ample opportunity to put their linguistic knowledge to practical use, while adults in many second language classrooms spend a great deal of time learning about the second language but may have little opportunity to use it. Furthermore, Newmark and Reibel pointed out how difficult it is to say how much time the child actually spends in language acquisition (Lester 1970:221-222).

Since we do not know how much actual time either adults or children spend in language acquisition, more fruitful analysis of differences between adults and children has been a close examination of the stages of language acquisition.

A great deal of research has gone into the stages of language acquisition all children pass through on their way to adult language proficiency, and recent research has demonstrated that successful second language learners pass through identical stages as first language learners.

After closely observing the stages of linguistic development in Spanish as a second language by several American children living in Madrid, Spain, Dato (1971) claimed that these children in acquiring Spanish followed the same strategies and stages as Spanish children did in learning Spanish as their first language.

More detailed evidence comes from Huang (1970) who studied a four-year-old child, Paul, who had just arrived in the United States from China. Paul was enrolled in a play school and attended it every weekday morning. His contact with English outside this noninstructional play situation was nonexistent. Huang observed Paul daily at the school. The first two weeks for Paul were unsettling because Paul said very little while in school. He did say "freeway" and "car" on the way home and responded to "hello" and "good morning." He "sang along" during music, mostly by humming. He followed instructions quickly by observing what the other boys and girls did, and he made various "noises" in the play yard. He smiled and laughed a great deal and maintained much physical contact with the other children and with the teachers.

In the table, Concurrent Strategies of Second Language Acquisition, Huang's data regarding the spoken responses of Paul and the situations in which they were acquired are presented in a chronologically organized form.

Concurrent Strategies of Second Language Acquisition

Weeks	Often-repeated utterances appearing to be passive memorizations	Novel utterances appearing to be based on rule acquisition
1	0	
2	Get out of here.*	
3	0	
4	It's time to eat and drink.* Let's go. Don't do that. Don't touch.	
5	0	
6	Are you ready? See you tomorrow. Excuse me. Hold my hand.* Kenny, sit down.	This kite. Yeah, that bus. Ball no.
7	Are you going too?* It's time to go home. Here we go.* Scoot over.*	This money? Paper this. Cow this. Mother no. Tree no. No ball. Wash hand? Two cat.
8	I'll see you. You shut up. What do you like? Hi, how are you?* We are going home.	Kenny car. This good. This ball? This boat. This paper.

(*Utterances repeated immediately after someone else had said them.)

		No ice cream. No candy. Ball doggy?
9	How are you doing?*	No money. No turtle. No more truck.
	This is mine.	Paul baby. This freeway. This not box.
10	Get out of here. Scoot over. All the birds up in the tree now. That spring is coming...(singing)	

The first column shows utterances which appear to be imitations and passive memorizations. They are nearly always repeated immediately after a native speaker has said them, stored in Paul's memory and used later.

In the second column are Paul's creative or novel utterances--the first of which appears in his sixth week in the United States.

Paul's first discernible English phrase was a repetition in the second week: "Get out of here!" Two days later, when another child tried to get a bike away from him, he remembered it: "Get out of here!" he said. It worked. For the first month it appeared that Paul was learning by passive memorization. He might repeat the sentence immediately after the other person said it, or he might remember and use it later in the appropriate situation.

During the second month a very interesting thing happened. A second kind of utterance appeared in profusion. In the column labeled "rule acquisition," the same kinds of data which appear in the first language acquisition may be seen. For example, Paul's formation of negatives such as "no ball" and "no ice cream" are obviously the same as those of a first language learner at an elementary stage (see Chapter II on "late telegraphic speech"). They are quite different from the "Don't touch that!" or "Don't touch!" of the imitation column.

Quite clearly two separate and very distinct strategies are running along side by side--speech by imitation on the one hand and rule-governed, creative speech on the other. After the twelfth week it became increasingly difficult to separate out imitation since Paul's rule acquisition moved so fast that it quickly caught up with the language he was imitating.

Paul quickly passed through babbling and holophrastic stages by making various undiscernible noises and single-word utterances noted in his first two weeks. His early telegraphic speech was marked by his use of short memorized phrases. The study of Paul closes when he was well into the late telegraphic stage, characterized by rule-governed speech. This sequence is identical to that reported by all observers of first language acquisition. Children spend different amounts of time in the various first language acquisition stages. Any supposed time difference between first and second language learners perhaps could be explained by the fact that a second language learner may spend longer periods of time in one stage, for example, in late telegraphic, and less time in another, for example, in holophrastic, than a first language learner spends. A recent study of errors made by adult second language learners shows that they too pass through distinct stages nearly identical to children as they become fluent speakers of the second language (Bailey, Madden and Krashen 1975). A possible implication would be to permit second language learners the freedom to progress through various stages, and not expect them to use complex adult grammar for their novel utterances when they are only in early stages of second language acquisition. Notwithstanding any supposed time difference, it appears that first and second language learners acquire languages following the same sequences.

Returning to Sweet's arguments, his second claim that the child's mind is unhampered by conflicting associations may be noted. This implies that the adult's first language will interfere with his acquisition of a second language.

In answer to this claim, Newmark and Reibel responded that rather than interference being the main issue, the errors a second language learner makes are due to his ignorance of the second language and he is merely falling back on the rules he knows, as follows:

No one can doubt the reality of the phenomena that are referred to by the term interference, but the metaphor implied by the term is unfortunate and misleading in language learning. It is true, indeed obvious by now, that learners will speak a foreign language with many errors which the observer can trace to sources in the learner's own language. But the pedagogical implications drawn by linguists so far from taking the term interference in too broad a sense have depended on an inadequate analysis, it seems to us, of those phenomena.

The term "interference" is appropriately used to describe a phenomenon observable in experiments in which different sets of responses are to be learned to the same set of stimuli. In that case (when stimulus set is held constant, remember) the previous learning of a certain set of responses may have a detrimental effect on the learning of a new set.

The problem of interference in language study thus arises only under conditions in which two different sets of responses are to be made to the same set of stimuli, or more generally, in the same stimulus field. Such conditions are met in certain traditional translation-grammar procedures, but they are also met in courses devised by linguists in which the student's attention is called explicitly or implicitly to a contrast between the native and target language. What linguists (in common with traditional teachers) have typically not done consistently in planning language courses is to minimize the conditions that lead to interference.

How can this be done? The proponents of the various "direct methods" have developed certain techniques that reduce interference. And linguists have even done better than the more physicalistic of the direct method teachers, by utilizing the powerful tool of dialogue memorization, which at its best provides more flexible and more useful contexts for learning--namely intra-linguistic contexts--than can be provided if realia are required to give meaningful context.

But how can we understand the phenomenon of foreign accent without resorting to the notion of interference? Our account is something like this: A person knows how to speak one language, say his native one. Now he tries to speak another one; but in his early stages of learning the new one, there are many things he has not yet learned to do; that is, he is grossly untrained in the new one. But he is induced to perform in that new one by an external teacher or by his internal desire to say something ("perform" may mean understand, speak, read, or write). What can he do other than use what he already knows to make up for what he does not know? To an observer who knows the target language, the learner will seem to be stubbornly substituting the native habits for target habits. But from the learner's point of view, all he is doing is the best he can: to fill in his gaps of training he refers for help to what he already knows. The problem of "interference" viewed thus reduces to the problem of ignorance, and the solution to the problem is simply more and better training in the target language, rather than systematic drill in the points of contrast between the two languages in order to combat interference.

The child is developing his intellect simultaneously with his language and can "want to say" only what he can in fact say. The adult, on the other hand, can want to say what he does not yet know how to say, and uses the means he has at his disposal. It's easy to see how this can result in the phenomenon of interference. This seems to us sufficient explanation of how interference comes about without the unnecessary hypostacization of competing linguistic systems, getting in each other's way or taking pot shots at one another.

There is much empirical support for preferring our view. For example, if already learned habits exerted force against learning a new language (as implied by the term "interference") we would expect the strongest habits to exert the greatest force: specifically, if a person knows imperfectly another foreign language in addition to the one he is trying to learn, we should expect his second language to be unable to compete with the native one in interferring with the third one. But, in fact, it is commonly observed that the two imperfectly learned languages may infect each other to a greater degree than the native language will infect either one (Newmark and Reibel 1963).

Supporting Newmark and Reibel, Dulay and Burt have been reporting on their analysis of the errors Spanish speaking children make in their acquisition of English as a second language since 1972 (Dulay and Burt

1972, 1973, 1974). Their studies attempted to determine if the syntactic errors are due to first language "interference" or to "developmental" strategies such as those made by children acquiring language as natives. Some 513 utterances containing errors were extracted from the natural speech of 179 children who were acquiring English as a second language. The sample included only those errors which could be classified as "developmental," or due to "interference."

The results of the analysis showed that 87.1 percent of the errors were of a developmental nature. Only 4.8 percent of the errors could be shown to be a result of interference from Spanish. Dulay and Burt (1972:247-248) have offered alternative explanations for that small percentage of errors which appear to be caused by interferences which would make even these errors appear to be also "developmental." Their conclusion is that interference cannot be shown to be a valid explanation of errors in second language acquisition. Their findings clearly support Newmark and Reibel's hypothesis that acquisition of a second language is essentially the same as acquisition of a first language.

Sweet's third claim was that the child's inducements or motivation to learn his first language are stronger than the adult's motivation to learn a second language.

Newmark and Reibel replied that "motivation" is not well defined and therefore difficult to assess, and stated:

> If we take "motivation" here to mean something like need or deprivation, it is not at all clear that the child does so poorly without language. In our culture, as in many others, a crying, inarticulate baby has his needs rather well taken care of: it is not until he develops language, as a matter of fact, that he seems to need what he can get only through language. It is also not clear that motivation in this sense has much to do with adult learning of language: there are cases galore of immigrants whose very livelihood depends on their mastering a language which nevertheless largely eludes them, and not a few cases of good language learners whose general reward will be no greater than one more "A" in a language course.
>
> If, on the other hand we take "motivation" to mean something like "effective reward" there is no theoretical, and little practical difficulty in constructing teaching programs for adults which are at least as efficient in the selective reinforcement that most native learners get for their linguistic efforts. Indeed, any imputation of some general, motivational differences between first and second language learning will fail to account for the observable success of children becoming bilingual in learning a second language.
>
> In all attempts to show the relevance of motivational differences for language learning, we seem to be led to the irregularity, apparently inescapable outside of controlled laboratory conditions--of positing motivation in exactly those cases where successful learning has taken place and denying its presence in unsuccessful cases (Newmark and Reibel 1963).

In their reply, Newmark and Reibel alluded to a distinction in motivation which was detailed by Gardner and Lambert in 1959 and amplified by Lambert and his associates on several occasions since (Gardner and Lambert 1959; Lambert, Hodgson, Gardner, Fillentain 1960; Lambert 1963; Lambert and Klinebert 1967; and Lambert and Gardner

1972).

In the 1959 article it was pointed out that an individual successfully acquiring a second language gradually adopts various aspects of behavior which characterize members of that language-culture group. The learner's ethnocentric tendencies and his attitudes toward the other group appear to determine his success in learning the second language (Gardner and Lambert 1959).

A learner's motivation to acquire a language is said to be determined by his attitudes toward the language. His motivation is deemed to be "instrumental" if the purpose of the second language study reflects a utilitarian value for the linguistic achievement; for example, getting a degree from a foreign university, or getting a promotion or a raise in pay as a result of knowing the second language. His motivation is "integrative" if the learner's purpose for second language study is to learn more about the cultural community in which the language is spoken, if he wishes to become a member of this community, or considers himself to be a potential member of this community. Integrative motivation was found to be significantly related to successful mastery of the higher levels of language proficiency (Lambert and Gardner 1972).

The claim against Newmark and Reibel's hypothesis based on motivational differences between adults and children is one of degree, not kind. However, a discussion of the kinds of motivation adds support to their hypothesis, especially in the absence of any solid research on the degree of motivation possessed by first and second language learners.

Certainly it cannot be said that children have instrumental motivation, unless one takes the bizarre view that children use language to get more food or warmer clothing. If this were so, then we would have to limit our definition of language to crying, since this is by far the most effective means a child has to have his utilitarian needs satisfied.

It seems almost self-evident that small children must possess the integrative motivation since they cannot be expected to view language as a vehicle for material advancement, even if they do have some instrumental motivation. It must be very minor compared with the child's integrative desire to identify with and be accepted by his family and playmates (Taylor 1974:33).

Spolsky long had hypothesized that when an individual is placed in a second language learning situation he may choose either the speakers of his own language, or the speakers of the second language, as the group to which he desires to maintain or attain membership. The results of Spolsky's 1969 study reaffirmed the importance of motivation and attitude as factors explaining the degree of proficiency a student achieves in second language learning. The student's attitude towards the speakers of the second language has a great effect on how well he learns. In other words, according to Spolsky, a person learns a language better when he wishes to be considered as a member of the second language cultural community--when his motivation is integrative (Spolsky 1969:271).

In another study, Anisfeld and Lambert (1963) found contradicting results. Americans studying Hebrew in Israel were more proficient learners if they evidenced high instrumental motivation. The authors explained their findings by suggesting that since most of the students wished to become Rabbis or Hebrew teachers, instrumental motivation in this case was really tapping integrative responses; that is, that the students wished to be part of the Hebrew-speaking community. Lambert, Gardner, Barik and Tunstall (1963) then tested American students attending a six-week French class. Their findings showed that the higher the scores on an acculturation measure, the higher their proficiency in French, again supporting the original findings.

Lukmani (1972), however, found that most of the students, in her sample of Marathi-speaking high school students, showed instrumental motivation for learning English. In a series of tests, she found her subjects held a high self-concept and high group-concept; language loyalty and culture loyalty were strong in her sample. The students did wish to learn English as a means to a better standard of living and they also wished to adopt other values of Westernized culture. In other words, they had both kinds of motivation. Attitudes towards English in post-colonial India must be considered in evaluating results of her study.

These studies tend to support the claim that second language learners must have integrative motivation in much the same way that children appear to have it in order to attain high levels of proficiency evident in first language learners.

A possible fourth claim against the proposal that first and second language acquisition is identical is added by Newmark and Reibel themselves. It is perhaps more critical than any of the others. It may be said that the child's brain is different from the adult's. The adult has lost the neurological ability to infer general linguistic laws from particular instances. In answer to this claim against their hypothesis, Newmark and Reibel asserted:

> Although we recognize the psychological and neuro-pathological evidence for positing differences between child and adult brains, we do not see this evidence as striking at the matter of linguistic inference. Healthy adult brains do enable adults to make various other kinds of generalizations from particular instances--e.g., healthy adults can gain the general skill of driving a car by practicing particular instances of driving, and can use that skill in new instances, on unfamiliar roads, in a new car, etc. We are unaware of any empirical evidence for saying that it is exactly the skill of making new applications of learned linguistic material to new instances that is lost in adulthood (Newmark and Reibel 1963).

Second language teachers often have felt that parts of the brain, much like an unused muscle, become stiff and rigid and eventually atrophy. This notion is expressed by de Sauze (1929:70) who in this instance is talking about the advantage of teaching second languages to fourteen-year-old students:

> First of all, the student at that age is young enough still to possess the great gift of imitation that enables him to acquire pronunciation with a facility never to be met later. His ear is keen for sound; his organs of speech are still supple; ...(emphasis added).

De Sauze falsely assumed that some languages utilize muscles which others do not.

Lenneberg (1967) has suggested that natural language acquisition can take place only during a specific "critical period" during a child's maturation which lasts from about age one to the onset of puberty. Before age one, language acquisition cannot take place due to the immaturity of the child's brain. Natural language acquisition past puberty cannot take place, he said, because the language center in the human brain has become localized or lateralized at puberty in the dominant cerebral hemisphere. According to his claim, underlying the child's ability to acquire language naturally and completely is the fact that the development of cerebral lateralization is not yet complete. Each hemisphere of the child's brain has equal potential to house the language center should there be an injury to the other side. Lateralization is first detectable around age two. It becomes fully established at puberty. The establishment of a language center in the dominant brain hemisphere is deemed to be responsible for the fact that "automatic acquisition from mere exposure to a given language seems to disappear after this age" (Lenneberg 1967:176).

In other words, it is claimed that the lateralization difference between adults and children renders the adult incapable of learning a language the way children do beyond the "critical period" (Penfield 1953).

Recent neurological research by Krashen (1973) has shown that lateralization takes place much earlier than puberty and therefore probably has no effect on language acquisition. In fact his evidence indicates that the language center is localized by age five.

This suggests that lateralization may mark the acquisition of a language rather than the establishment of a "neurological" barrier to further natural language acquisition. Furthermore, a study of an otherwise normal girl who emerged from eleven years of enforced isolation at age thirteen (post-puberty) has shown that it is possible to acquire language after puberty (Curtiss, Fromkin, Krashen, et al. 1974).

This evidence, together with the fact that some adult learners do acquire a second language perfectly with native pronunciation, suggests that the hypothesis that adults are neurologically different and that this difference has a bearing on second language acquisition needs to be revised (Ritchie 1967:130 and Braine 1971).

In an extensive survey of recent psycholinguistic research Burstall concludes that the claim regarding a "critical period" for language acquisition remains "unsupported by direct experimental evidence" (Burstall 1975:21).

Notwithstanding, Langacker noted that the onset of puberty represents some kind of "dividing line" where most adults are incapable of learning a second language without a "noticeable accent" (Langacker 1973:15).

Since no neurological evidence is known to account for this "foreign accent" phenomenon reported by educators and linguists alike (Hyman 1975:21 and Diller 1971:18) attention will be turned to psycholinguistics for a possible psychological basis.

Taylor (1974:34) and Stevick (1974:1-2) have linked the onset of puberty with certain "affective variables." These variables represent personality changes which occur at this time. Adolescents begin to view themselves as members of a cultural group rather than as individuals. They become more ethnocentric. This self-concept may be manifest in cases where one is willing to speak a second language but still needs to maintain his native cultural identity through a "foreign accent." In other words, one's "foreign accent" may be an outward manifestation to a second language culture of one's inner self-identity or membership in one's first language culture.

Bowen suggested that the adult second language learner has his own mother cultural identification firmly implanted. This identification follows him into the second language as a "foreign accent." Bowen went on to illustrate his point by sharing with his readers a confidential remark made to him by a Japanese student: "...why should I invest a tremendous effort in an attempt to sound like an American when I'm really Japanese?" (Bowen 1972:84-87).

Elkind (1970:67) identified the feeling of selfhood as emerging because the adolescent is undergoing a physiological metamorphosis. The adolescent assumes that others are as concerned with his behavior as he himself is. This belief is at the base of his self-concept.

Apart from the notion of "foreign accent," an additional psychological distinction between adults and children lies in the fact that adults demand grammatical explanations. They want to know explicit grammatical rules for the second language. It is not clear how adults profit from these explanations, since they often are not able to demonstrate their knowledge of the grammar points taught when speaking; nevertheless, giving them appears to have a positive effect on adult second language learning. Perhaps it is sufficient for the learner to know that there are principled reasons for the linguistic phenomena he observes (Politzer 1968:330 and Wilkins 1972:173).

Inhelder and Piaget (1958:336) discussed a stage of development which also occurs at adolescence. According to their theory, after puberty, young adults begin to formulate conscious hypotheses to explain and organize phenomena when they observe them. Adolescents become interested in overt solutions which have universal, rather than ad hoc application. Applied to language learning, adults desire to have a conscious understanding of the grammar of a language they are studying. Children learning first or second language do not have the need for these general hypotheses, nor are they concerned with having a conscious knowledge of individual rules (Corder 1967).

Since both of these differences appear to have a psychological base having to do with the speaker's feelings of a need for identity and overt explanations, they do not demonstrate that adults acquiring a second language employ different motivation, nor are they neurologically different.

A program operating on the researcher's hypotheses would permit teachers to give grammatical explanations when required, and would anticipate the presence of some "foreign accent" in an adult second language student.

CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Institution of the Two ELI Programs: The Subjects and Grouping

The hypothesis presented in Chapter I of this study is that adults may acquire a second language as well as children acquire a first language--without grammatical structuring, drills, frequent overt corrections, et cetera, being utilized in classroom procedures; instead, methods are utilized that children ordinarily and successfully appear to employ, such as exposure to the spoken language and participation in its use. In order to test the hypothesis, two classes in English for students learning English as a second language were organized. Students were randomly drawn from among the non-English speaking students at the Hawaii Campus of the Brigham Young University. All students came from similar socio-economic backgrounds. (See Appendix C)

The control group followed the commonly accepted Audio-Lingual approach emphasizing grammatical drills, such as paradigm repetitions, item substitutions, concatenations, et cetera. For example, a particular grammatical phenomenon was presented, explained, and drilled; the grammar points and drills were presented in a particular order following the well-known ESL textbook, English Sentence Structure, by Robert K. Krohn (1971). This textbook is a revision of English Sentence Patterns by Robert Lado and Charles C. Fries (1958). In a review of this revised textbook, Kriedler (1972) summarized by emphasizing that Krohn's revision follows the Fries Audio-Lingual tradition.

The Krohn textbook also was recommended by Angelis who adds, "Almost every lesson has its share of simple substitution or basic word order type drills" (Angelis 1973:176).

Pack, speaking of the textbook, states that the thirty lessons are "a very comprehensive study of the basic English sentences..." (Pack 1972:20).

The experimental group did not have a textbook. They never were drilled at any time during the fifteen weeks, and grammatical explanations were given only when the students requested information. The course was not grammatically organized. If the students were "corrected," it was accomplished by responding correctly to the erring student. For example, if a student said, "Mary and I was swimming yesterday," the teacher might respond with something like "Yesterday John and I were playing tennis."

This research was accomplished through the co-operation of the Communication and Language Arts Division of the Brigham Young University, Hawaii Campus. In the experimental group there were seventeen adult students; in the control group there were twelve adult students.

Both the researcher and Cheryl Blasnek, a junior with a TESL major at Brigham Young University, Hawaii Campus, acted as instructors for these students. All of the students had expressed a strong instrumental and some integrative motivation to learn English as a second language since English is the medium of instruction on campus, and all students in the program are expected to graduate from the University. The language and cultural backgrounds of the students varied considerably, as also did their previous experience with English (see Appendix C for further information regarding these points). All students were tested, interviewed and adjudged to be in the beginning stages of English proficiency by instructors in the Communication and Language Arts Division of the University. All students took the Michigan Test, a standardized structural test and the Oral Production Test, developed at the University of Hawaii for foreign student placement according to communication skill. (The testing and interview instrumentation is fully described in the Evaluation Procedures section.)

Classroom Procedures Utilized with the Experimental Group

Preliminary Arrangements

In this section the physical arrangements and the daily activities of the experimental group are described.

The experimental group consisted of seventeen adult students: eight men and nine women. The duration of the experimental group program was fifteen weeks--

September 10, 1973, to December 21, 1973. Each class was fifty minutes in length for five days per week. Some weekend and homework activity also occupied the students as noted in this section.

The experimental group actually was divided into two subgroups. The subgroups consisted of eight and nine adult students respectively. Men and women students were divided as equally as possible. The effectiveness of an instructor is sharply impaired if he has to speak with more than eight to ten persons at any given time. A further justification for dividing the group is that rarely do people group themselves in natural conversation groups of more than eight or nine people.

The researcher conducted the activities of one subgroup during the first half of the experiment; the assistant conducted the activities of the other subgroup at the same time. At the end of the first half of the experiment, the researcher and the assistant exchanged groups; thus each subgroup received instruction for equal amounts of time by each instructor.

The following qualifications were considered for an assistant:

(1) He should have an outgoing personality;

(2) He must be a native speaker of English;

(3) He might have a knowledge of some of the native languages of the group, but not fluency; and

(4) Ideally, he should have enough linguistic training

(specifically in phonetics and syntax) to be able to give clear explanations when called for. However, the assistant's job was not to teach; his principal function was to be an outgoing, English-speaking friend who had a full repertoire of interesting and varied activities from which to draw as group experiences called for such.

Cheryl Blasnek, a TESL major at Brigham Young University, Hawaii Campus, met all of the qualifications stated above, and was accepted as an assistant in the study.

Arrangements were made to house the students in the college-owned dormitories, and meals were taken in the college cafeteria, since it was impossible to house the students in the community with native speakers of English. It was viewed as imperative for the maximal success of the program that all students be housed, not with other students of their own language group, but with American students whose first language was English and who were attending the school and also who were residing in the dormitories. Such an arrangement is desirable due to the fact that the time spent with the teacher is limited and the student, therefore, should be placed in situations which would maximize his contact with English. In addition, a situation that will tend to minimize the students' use of their native languages among themselves is highly desirable, if not necessary. If the students are left in the company of other students of the same native language community after the class hours, English probably will not be used as a mode of communication. In order to learn English under the basic hypothesis of the experimental program, it is extremely advantageous to the students' acquisition of the target language to find themselves in an English-speaking environment at all times.

Students were tested during the first week. All students took the Michigan Test, a standardized structural test. Also, the Oral Production Test, developed at the University of Hawaii for foreign student placement in English classes, was administered to the students in this group.

Several teachers in the Communications and Language Arts Division of the University administered the Oral Production Test to the students. This test is in the form of a guided conversation or interview (a copy is found in Appendix A). There are certain questions which the teachers ask the students, such as their place of origin, their names, and so forth. There are also three pictures which the students are asked to describe. Then they are asked to tell about their families, and some of their experiences. Based on how well, or how poorly, the students performed on the Oral Production Test, the teacher giving this test assigns a score. Because of the somewhat subjective nature of the test instrumentation, each student in the group in this study was rated by two faculty members; the average score of these two ratings was used in the analysis of the results.

While the language laboratory was available to the experimenter and the group, the facility was not utilized on any formal systematic basis. Why does the student need to use a mechanical language laboratory when he is surrounded by the target language in his daily living? (Hale and Budar 1970). Language laboratories usually are utilized by students in order to practice structural patterns, to work on pronunciation or to memorize dialogues. None of these activities formed an integral part of the experimental program. Each day spent in an English-speaking environment was judged to be a continuous series of dialogues and drills--not written, rehearsed, and taped and therefore artificial, but relevant and dynamic. In addition, it was felt that the typical classroom activities, of which the repetition and substitution drills are good examples, often are so removed from real-life language that whatever language learning takes place does so in spite of, rather than because of, the dialogues and drill repetitions. Although no formal systematic use of the language laboratory was advocated, if a student believed that he might benefit by the use of such a device, the use of the laboratory was not denied him. Therefore, provisions were made to have English tapes available.

Instructional Procedures

The First Week

In the first meeting, September 10, 1973, the two instructors (Ms. Blasnek and the researcher) sat with the students in a circle and introduced themselves; they then requested the students to give their names. In most cases, the students knew sufficient English to be able to follow "formula" greetings and introductions.

At the end of the first meeting, the students were informed as to the time and place to which they were to go to be interviewed.

The students were instructed (assigned) to prepare a talk in English of about two minutes in length of time about themselves, their families, and their home towns for the first day of class instruction. They were informed that they might read the talks, if they so desired. They also were instructed to have three questions prepared, which would be applicable to, and which were to be addressed to each student who gave a talk. For example, Student A gave a talk about himself; then each of the other students in the class would ask Student A at least three questions in English about that student, regarding things that the student had not said in his talk. They might ask, if the student had not stated in his talk, "Where is your home town?" or "Is your home town big?" or "What do some people do for a living in your home town?" and questions of such nature.

In order to give the students an example of what was wanted for them to do, the two instructors--Cheryl Blasnek and the researcher--demonstrated an exercise in front of the class. The researcher told about his family and his home town; and his assistant asked questions about his home home town, which he answered. Then the assistant gave a talk about her family and home town, and the researcher asked questions, which she answered. The students, at this point, were invited to ask questions about home towns of either or both instructors.

The goal of the language exercise here was not necessarily the talk itself, although it was viewed as important for the students to be able to talk about their home towns in English; the basic teaching goal was to "break the ice" and get the students to express something about themselves to the other members of the class in English.

One technique used to stimulate conversation that was found especially helpful during the first week was to ask Student A to "interview" Student B, and report what he had learned about Student B to the class. The class then would ask Student A questions about Student B. Student A would then ask Student B to give the answers; or to get them if he did not already know them; and afterwards, Student A would report the information to the class. This technique was used in connection with many exercises. After an exercise, the instructor would ask the students to interview each other regarding any phase of the exercise, and to report to the class.

All students completed their talks this week. In many cases, the questions that the students asked were stilted. Often a student would ask the exact, same questions of every other student. Both the instructors encouraged the students and told them when they were doing well. They were congratulated in front of the group and later in private for their initial performance.

On Friday of this first week, the students were informed that during the following week they would be talking about their favorite hobbies or sports, and were asked to be prepared to tell the other members of the class about them. Also, during this first week, each student received a written invitation to visit a faculty member in his home for Sunday dinner.

The Second Week

On Monday of the second week, September 17, 1973, the instructors, Ms. Blasnek and the researcher, each told the class about his favorite hobby and what he liked to do in his spare time, and asked each other questions about their hobbies. Various class members also asked questions about the hobbies of each instructor. One of the young women from Japan, Seiko, wanted to tell about playing ping-pong. Arrangements were made to meet as a class in the campus recreational center where Seiko gave a ping-pong demonstration and was asked questions about ping-pong by her classmates. Later, all played ping-pong for a short time.

The same day, a male student from Taiwan named Edward explained to the group how to play Chinese Chess. It was very difficult for him to explain in English and many times he had to ask other students how to say things. The other students who knew the names of the different chess men would repeat them for him and help him with his

English. Students from other countries talked about board games that they played in their countries.

The following day, Tuesday, David, from Hong Kong, brought a cassette recording of Cantonese songs and talked for about two minutes on Cantonese songs and the difference between Cantonese songs and American music. A student from Japan, Mayumi, gave a demonstration on Japanese flower arrangement which lasted about five minutes. She talked about the angle at which the flower should be set, the relative height of the flowers with respect to the vase, and several other factors associated with flower arrangement. There were many questions from the other students following both of these talks.

In talking about their hobbies, the students did not resort to any notes. They actually were speaking from their own experience. There were, needless to say, many grammatical mistakes, but no attempt was made to correct the students.

Carol, a girl from Taiwan, talked about gardening and more particularly about raising Azaleas. In her report on gardening, Carol talked about weather, temperature, soil conditions, the type of plants, and the times that each should be planted.

On Wednesday Christopher gave a report, or rather a critique, on the movies that are produced in Hong Kong. He talked about the heavy dramatic effects that are used by Chinese-sword and Kung Fu movies, and how they are different from American Western movies. Christopher actually had seen these movies being filmed. Many members of the class had seen the same movies in theaters and asked Christopher a great many questions about them.

Mei Mei talked about Chinese folk dancing, and the meanings of hand and body motions, and the symbolism of the costumes.

On Thursday Viliami taught the class a short Tongan song with actions, and also talked about Tongan music. The class was very enthusiastic in learning the Tongan song. Then Iris, a girl from Tahiti, taught the class a Tahitian action song which was very interesting to the class members.

Suzanne brought some dresses that she had sewn, and talked about her sewing hobby. She gave explanations on how a dress is made. Again people asked many questions.

On Friday Takeo talked about television in Japan, and tried to compare it with the television that he had seen in the United States. His conclusion was that the two are very much alike--only the language is different.

Both Wayne and Keiko had some expertise in drawing, so they explained and demonstrated how to draw trees and faces. The directions they gave were very helpful. Each class member drew trees and faces, and Wayne and Keiko went to each student and critiqued his pictures.

In all of these exercises, no attempt was made by the instructors to correct the English usage of the students. On Friday, Ms. Blasnek and the researcher gave a fifteen-minute "pep" talk to the groups. It was emphasized to them that the way to learn to speak English is to:

(1) Listen very carefully to all the English that they hear, and to seek out opportunities to listen to English outside of class, such as on TV, radio, movies, rap sessions, et cetera;

(2) Speak only English in public, both in and out of class, but to feel free to use a bilingual dictionary if they wished;

(3) Ask any questions they wish of the teacher about English or to consult any textbook for additional help. They were informed that there are many excellent textbooks on the market. A few were mentioned. The idea was to get them into book stores looking at English textbooks, and to get them to note that different authors organize English in different ways, as one author's organization may not appeal to all students; and

(4) Be patient with themselves regarding their errors and rate of progress, and also be patient with the problems of other students.

They were told that their own brains would help organize the English they actively listened to into a language they could use in much the same way that they learned their first language.

The following out-of-class "homework" assignments were made for the experimental group students:

(1) Listen and watch other people in the act of greeting and leave-taking. They were asked to remember or write down the different forms they heard. To prepare them for this, in class a list of questions was made on the chalkboard, and explanations discussed as to the relative formality of the different forms. Also, situations in which the forms would be likely to occur were discussed. Some specific situations were given and they "acted them out," with the accompanying speech. The instructors were interested in their ability to exercise appropriate non-verbal behavior in the role-play situations;

(2) Stand near people buying something in a store. They were asked to remember or write down the questions or expressions of both the clerk and the customer; and

(3) Listen to a news broadcast on radio or TV and copy down two or three sentences from the broadcast. In a later class the students wrote a composite newscast of their own. Several students read them aloud as a simulated broadcast.

Over the weekend, badges were made which said simply, "English Please." Many students wore these badges as a reminder that they should speak English as much as possible, particularly in public.

The Third Week

During the week of September 24, 1973, the instructors decided, inasmuch as they recently had learned some Polynesian action songs, that it would be profitable as well as pleasurable to teach the students some American action songs. So both classes were taught, "Ring Around the Rosie, Pocket Full of Posie; Ashes, Ashes; We All Fall Down." Both the words and the actions were explained and then all participated. Later the "London Bridge" action song, complete with "What Would You Rather Have, a Golden Ring or a ...?" was attempted with considerable success--and laughter. The students stated that they thought it was "terrific." They also stated that it was a good activity because they were learning English, because it was an action song that involved English and was fun, also because the teachers were participating in it with them. All knew that it was a juvenile activity, but because the teachers were participating the students did not feel it was demeaning.

During this class period, the class members were notified that a major activity of the course would be the production of four in-class dramas or skits. In order to show the students what a skit was and how one is produced, the instructors demonstrated a skit for them.

Ms. Blasnek and the researcher wrote a short skit. They developed the time, place, characters, a problem and its solution. These factors were outlined on the chalkboard. Then a dialogue was written to fit the outline on the chalkboard and a part was "assigned" to each instructor. A few props were obtained hastily, and the skit was acted out. The skit situation "starred" two new students at the University who were studying in the library. One said, "Gee, I'm so hungry." (That was the problem.) Then the other replied, "Let's go to the cafeteria." (That was the solution--false, as it turned out in this case; they went to the cafeteria and found the food inedible.) It was a very short skit, but the students stated that it was fun, and seemed to appreciate it. The class skits were to be written later.

The emphasis on speaking English at all times was stressed heavily during this week, and the students all pledged to each other that they would speak only English six days a week (on Sunday they would take a break and speak their own languages).

Two additional out-of-class assignments were made during this week:

(1) Students were assigned to make telephone calls. They were made aware of the opening and closing formulas for telephone conversations before undertaking this exercise. The following are examples of tasks given:

  (a) Call a local hotel. Ask about the kinds of rooms they have and how much each costs for one night. Find out when the check-in time is and when you must be out the next day.

(b) Call a local travel agent. Find out the schedule and the price of an airplane ticket to Los Angeles, California, and return. Find out if there are special rates for night flights and if there are any other special rates.

(c) Select a local restaurant. Call to find out what time they serve dinner and whether or not you need to make reservations. If they say, "Yes," tell them you will call back.

(d) Call the local post office. Find out if there are customs regulations that you must follow to mail a package to your home. Find out the rates and how the package must be wrapped.

(2) Students also were assigned various goal-directed activities. The following are examples of such goal-directed activities for out-of-class communication:

(a) You, a male, are getting married. You want to buy your girl an engagement ring. Go to a jewelry store and price some rings. Find our what you can about the cost, quality, and history of engagement rings. Is it still a common practice to give a girl an engagement ring in the United States? Report to the class on what you find out.

(b) You have $1,000 to spend on new furniture. Since you do not have any furniture now, you must buy some for your apartment. (You will not have to buy a refrigerator or stove.) Can you furnish an apartment on $1,000? What can you get for that amount? How much does each item cost? Report to the class on what you find out.

(c) You would like to get two gifts for friends at home, one for a man and one for a woman. You would like them to be "typically American," but you can spend only $10 for each of them. Locate suitable gifts. Why are they "typically American?" Report to the class on what you find out.

(d) You would like to take a short trip during the winter holidays. You have only $300 to spend. Go to a travel agency and find out where you could go for that amount. What is a "package" tour? How long can you stay away on the money available? Report to the class on what you find out.

(3) You would like to buy a bicycle. Go to or call a bike shop in town and find out what kind of bicycles are available; how much it will cost you, what other equipment you will have to buy, and how long it will take to get a bicycle if none in stock suits you. Report to the class on what you find out.

On Friday plans were completed with the students for the next two weeks. The immediately following week was to be involved with producing and presenting the skits. The next following week would be devoted to an exercise called "How to Make."

On Monday, the class was divided as previously planned into two groups. Each group was to work on producing the skits for the other group. Another motive in dividing the class was to establish conversational groups, which do not usually consist of as many as twenty people. A more usual group would consist of from five to ten people; so it was assumed that the smaller groups would engage in more conversational activities.

The Fourth Week

On Monday of the week of September 30, 1973, each group decided what the skit situations would be. That is, each group answered the questions of when, where, who, and what (the problem and the solution) as preparation for developing the skits.

On Tuesday each group actually wrote out some lines for its skit. The teachers acted as class secretaries and wrote down whatever the students suggested. The only changes the teachers made were ones that made the sentences more grammatically correct. But the basic input--vocabulary selection and ideas--was the students' contribution. They knew that it was their own skit.

On Wednesday the students finished writing the skits. One member of each group acted as manager and organized the class. The manager arranged for the assignment of parts and for rehearsals; he also requested others to go out and find props for the skits. Announcements were made to publicize the skits. The other group, some faculty members, and the division chairman were invited to attend.

In each case, the members of the groups came from different countries so that they had to speak English with one another in order to communicate in organizing and arranging for the skit.

The main reason the students were assigned the production of skits was not to have them memorize dialogues, but rather to pressure them to communicate with other students in English in arranging for props, programs, invitations, and talking with each other about the skit. Memorizing the lines, however, was useful. Most of the skits involved student situations. The memorized lines actually were used by the students out of the class.

On Thursday they rehearsed the skits, with the teacher simply observing. On Friday the skits were produced and were followed by a small party with refreshments of punch and cookies; each group giving a skit hosted the other group. Members of the English Department, including the Division Chairman, who had been sent invitations, also attended the performances. The students' morale was boosted, knowing so many people were interested in their language acquisition efforts.

The Fifth Week

On the week of October 7, 1973, the "How to Make" exercises were started. Students were paired off with students who had come from different countries. They were asked to come to class and tell how to make either something that they had never made before, or, more often, something that they knew how to make. Each pair had to decide what they would demonstrate; they had to arrange for the materials, and decide who would explain what phase of making the object that they would demonstrate.

Emily, a Mandarin speaker, was paired with Esther, a Cantonese speaker. They showed how to make animals out of paper. Edward from Taiwan and Viliami from Tonga brought coconut palm fronds into class and taught how to make a coconut hat. Toni from the Philippines and Lai from Taiwan brought paper and demonstrated how to make paper sunflowers for decorations. Gil Og, from Korea, and Suzanne, from Taiwan, demonstrated how to make Kim Chee, a much relished Korean food. They brought a small cooker so that they could make the Kim Chee in class. Christopher from Hong Kong and Seiko from Japan made an oriental kite for the class.

In each case, the students were required to bring to class sufficient materials so that everyone in the class could participate in the activity; this permitted each student to make a kite, a sunflower, a coconut hat, and paper animals and at least witness the making of Kim Chee. Directions were given by the students and questions were asked back and forth.

The Sixth Week

During the week of October 15, 1973, the teachers changed groups. The researcher took over the group Ms. Blasnek was working with, and she took over his group.

During this week, each student was given a simple, uncomplicated picture and was asked to describe it to the group without showing them the picture. The group was then supplied with paper and asked to draw a stick picture of the scene being described by each student.

It was necessary to use the English present-progressive tense in order to decide what is happening in the picture. In addition, the first time a subject in the picture was introduced, it had to be identified with the indefinite article. Further allusions to the subject were made with the definite article, since the subject had been defined.

One picture showed customers in a store with a man buying a shirt from another man. The second one showed two Eskimo boys fishing through the ice with an igloo in the background. Another picture showed a man standing next to a car with his hand on the car. Another picture showed a band marching past buildings, with several band instruments arranged on the sideline.

This exercise was very helpful in maintaining student interest, and marked improvement in English was shown during this week. The exercise convinced the students that they could, in actual fact, communicate in English They really could convey an abstract idea to other students who could understand what was being explained without seeing it. The visual feedback provided by the stick figure pictures the students drew was very encouraging to the students.

After the students finished drawing the pictures, the student who was explaining the picture talked to the other students and helped them bring their pictures more into conformity with the original picture. At the end of the class, the members of the class were shown the original picture, and each student made a comparison of his drawing with the picture. Each student had the opportunity to participate in this activity.

The Seventh Week

During the week of October 22, 1973, the second skits were planned and written, learned, rehearsed with props, and produced. The second skit for each group was slightly more complicated than the first. It involved more elaborate story lines, props, and humor. For instance, one skit involved a man who had a headache and went to the hospital where a psychotic doctor removed his appendix. In the skit of the second group, a family took a drive around the island, and one by one the car tires, portrayed by kneeling students, went flat because they were "tired" of carrying the family around.

The Eighth Week

In the week of October 29, 1973, the students were given pictures of stick figures of people performing various activities such as dancing, singing, kissing, running, buying books, studying, et cetera. They were asked to look at the picture and tell a story about it. The other members of the class were told to ask questions about the picture or about the story.

The second phase of this exercise was a chain story. One student got a picture and began a story; he then handed the picture to the next student who continued the story; each student in turn would continue the story until some conclusion was reached. In some cases, the stories were so good that the students did not want to stop and they continued building them until all ten students in the group had added to the story. Each student had an opportunity to begin a story, continue the story, and to end the story. In this exercise the students developed notions of story organization. The first student to speak set the stage for the story, and the other students created the body of the story. The final student concluded the story by "winding up" all the events which the other students had contributed. This exercise was thus a sort of oral essay or composition.

The Ninth Week

On November 5, 1973, the students were taught how to play "Twenty Questions." However, the instructors called it "Who Am I?" The students were to choose a person whom they all knew, or one whom everybody in the class would recognize. In many cases, the person chosen was an American or British entertainment or political figure.

Each student was to ask two questions to insure that everybody had a chance to participate. The questions went around the room, each student asking one question. After these ten questions were exhausted, students could ask the remaining ten questions at random; or the person who was "it" could choose the other student to ask the questions to see if, within twenty questions, the students could guess who the person was that he was pretending to be.

This is considered an excellent ESL game, since it is very lively, but mainly because it teaches the students quite quickly how to form and develop "Yes-No" questions using the verb Be, the modals, and the word do with other verbs. The students also learned and participated in categorization. That is, they learned how to go from larger categories to smaller categories. For example, all of the human family is categorized into people who are either living or dead. Invariably, the first question asked was: "Are you living?" The human family is categorized also into male and female, and so a likely second, or first question was: "Are you male?" Nationality and occupation questions usually followed.

During this week the class also played "What's My Line?" However, it was called "What Do You Do?" This exercise was based on a student choosing some occupation and the other students asking any question except "What do you do?" The "line" person had to tell the truth, but not necessarily the whole truth. Students soon found out that the answers to Wh questions could be misleading, but yes-no questions required exactness. They could ask whether the person worked outside or inside, whether he wore a uniform or not, if he used tools in his work, if he helped people or not, if he made things or not, if he fixed things or not, et cetera. This game allowed Wh questions but they proved frustrating, and the game was not regarded as being as interesting as the "Who Am I?" game by the students.

Other conversational exercises were used during this week. The teachers chose from the following:

(1) "Airport": There are only six undamaged parachutes on a damaged airplane flying to China. But there are seven people aboard: a baby, a pregnant woman, a priest, a senator, a young child, a grandmother, and a famous scientist. Small groups of students must decide which one should be left behind and why. The class discusses each group's decision.

(2) "The End": A film strip or reproduced cartoon without the words is exhibited for the students to complete with appropriate wording, with any one of the following choices:

  (a) Unfinished situation--students write a dialogue or story to complete it;

  (b) Fill in speech in cartoons;

  (c) Write captions for cartoons.

(3) "Desert Island": Each student pretends that he is

going to live on a desert island for the rest of his life. Small groups of students make a list of only ten items which they would take to the island. Each group presents its list to the class.

(4) "Deaf Movie": The instructor obtains a short documentary film from university film libraries, USIS, private film distributors, or manufacturers. He shows the film to the class the first time without sound. He talks about what the film is probably about, what language they might expect to hear, et cetera. Then he reshows the film with sound. He checks on student comprehension of the film with questions. He begins with broad category questions such as "What was the film about?" and proceeds to narrow category questions like "Why did X do Y?" Students are encouraged to ask questions too.

(5) "Newspaper Headlines": Students work out the basic sentences from which the headlines were extracted.

(6) "Half a Telephone Conversation": Students are given a one-sided telephone conversation. They know what "Mr. Brown" says, but they cannot hear what the other replies. They must, however, guess.

(7) "Debate": (for small group discussion)

  (a) Appoint a chairman to control the discussion.
  (b) Appoint a secretary to record and report to the class.
  (c) Agree on whether the following statements are

always, sometimes, or never true:

1. The teacher should decide what is studied in class.
2. Students should be assigned written work every day.
3. The teacher should correct students' mistakes, et cetera.

The Tenth Week

By the time that the students wrote and produced the third skit during the week of November 12, 1973, the students were judged by the instructors to be quite proficient in terms of planning, organizing, and producing their own skits. In each case they selected a manager for each group and were asked to choose either past time or future time for their skits' situations.

One group chose to plan their skit around some situation in the past--specifically, the Tower of Babel. The other group chose to do a skit about the future--the year 2001. The students planned the skits entirely themselves. They arranged for props and scenery, assigned parts and did walk-through rehearsals, dress rehearsals with scenes and scene changes, et cetera. The skits were well received by the student audiences.

In the group who elected to write about the Tower of Babel, two players in Scene I indicated that they wanted to get to heaven and then decided to build a tower. In Scene II they built the Tower; it was constructed with chairs and books and tables found in the classroom. The students had to cooperate to build it. In Scene III God confounded the language of the people. In Scene IV the people were scattered. It was interesting to observe that as God confounded the language of the people the students stopped speaking English and started speaking their own native tongues! In the final scene the people scattered to all parts of the Earth, with the exception of the family of "Jared," whose language was not confounded. Jared and his family were allowed to continue to talk with each other because they were so righteous.

In the other group the central idea was that of a family living in the year 2001 planning their yearly vacation. In Scene I they decided in family council to go to one of the other planets for their vacation. At the conclusion of the family council they all go to bed. In Scene II the family is flying to Saturn and they pass through the Rings which remind the children that they are hungry, since the Rings look like the Golden Arches of McDonald's! In Scene III the rocket breaks down on one of the Rings of Saturn and the voyagers think that they are hopelessly lost; however, in Scene IV the family wakes up and discovers that they all have had a very bad dream.

The Eleventh Week

During the week of November 19, 1973, Thanksgiving Week, the students were all given a dollar and taken to a local shopping center. The only requirement was that they spend their dollars. This created much merriment; it required the students to talk with people in the stores about some of the small things that they needed. This activity took two days, as the students had to plan very carefully what they were going to buy. For example, some students got together and pooled their money to buy something they all could enjoy.

On Wednesday the students asked if they could have a party; so as a conversation exercise, a scavenger hunt was organized. A list was made and given to each of the two groups; they were instructed to find and bring back the various objects on the list. They were told that they could not use any of their own personal possessions, but each one of the objects on the list had to be secured from someone else. The following items were included on each list: a hairbrush, a comb, a coconut, a fork, a Bible, a shell, two pennies, a quarter, a dime, a nickel, two matches, a rubber band.

The students had to go to the dormitories, ask people if they had these objects, tell them what they were doing, secure the objects, and bring them back. The first group to come back with all of the items was declared the winner.

Later, the students played four games of Charades. They sang several American folk songs to guitar accompaniment, and partook of refreshments of punch and cookies at the conclusion of the activities.

During the Thanksgiving Holidays all of the students were invited to faculty homes for the Holiday meal, to enjoy an American Thanksgiving celebration. Six "word games" were included in the afternoon entertainment, and each participated in at least one of these games.
The games selected were as follows:

(1) Crossword puzzles: The instructors made their own, but there are books available for beginning or intermediate students.

(2) Self-descriptions: Each student writes a paragraph in which he describes himself. The leader scrambles these and passes them out again. Each student must guess the identity of the writer.

(3) Spelling bee: A leader has the only dictionary used.

(4) Bingo: (Word Bingo--words used instead of numbers).

(5) Scrabble: The group breaks up into two groups for this game involving the creation of written words with wooden chips on which are written the letters of the alphabet.

(6) Password: Two students work together. One has a pack of cards with nouns, verbs, and adjectives on them. The other must find out by asking questions as to what is on each card. The student holding the card also may volunteer information about the word. No writing or spelling is permitted.

The Twelfth Week

On the week of November 26, 1973, each student was given a situation and asked what he would do if the problem really were his own. The students were given the following problems to solve:

(1) While on your trip to the United States, you are stopped by the police and asked for your driver's license and your passport. You discover that you do not have your papers with you. You have left them in the hotel. The police take you to jail. They think that perhaps you have stolen the car you are driving. What would you do?

(2) You get a telephone call. Your good friend who lives a day's journey away tells you that you must come and help him immediately or he will have to go to jail. Only you can keep him from going to jail. Your boss will be very angry if you do not go to work. What would you do?

(3) One day the police come to your house to arrest you. They say they think you have broken a local law. The police tell you that you have to go to court that day and either pay a $3,000 fine or go to jail. They leave. What would you do?

(4) You sign a lease on an apartment and move in with your family. Two months later, in the middle of the school year and the Holiday Season, your landlord tells you that his son-in-law is being transferred back to the town and he wants you to move out as soon as possible. You have no car and very little money.

What would you do?

(5) You are the captain of a space ship that has crashed on the surface of the moon, hundreds of miles from where you were supposed to have met the mother ship. What would you do?

(6) You get a good job and are told all the things you are supposed to do. You are told to take no money away from your job, but at the end of the day you are to give the money to the cashier at 8:30 p.m. At 8:25 p.m., several people come to see you and you are not able to take the money to the cashier. He has gone home. You leave the money in the drawer under lock and key. Only you and the cleaning lady have the keys. The next day the money is gone. What would you do?

The students were given these situations. They read the situations themselves and thought about them for a few minutes and then read them to the class and told the class what they would do. The class members then asked them questions. This activity was pursued for two days.

On Wednesday the students interviewed each other as newspaper reporters. They asked about each other's brothers and sisters, where they were from, what their favorite subjects were in school, what subjects they found the most difficult, if they had been to the American mainland, and other things they decided to ask. Student A interviewed Student and Student A reported to the class.

The Thirteenth Week

The following week, December 3, 1973, the class decided to take a trip to Honolulu. Transportation for the students was arranged, and conversations were held about what each student wanted to see when the class arrived in Honolulu. On Tuesday the class made the trip "to town," and visited a law office in downtown Honolulu. They were given a tour of the office, and also talked with one of the attorneys about the practice of law in the United States and the problems that foreigners often have with American laws.

Next they went to the Ala Moana Shopping Center and visited many of the stores there. Since Ala Moana Shopping Center is one of the largest shopping centers in the world, it proved to be quite an interesting place for the class to visit.

Next a trip to the University of Hawaii was taken, and several buildings on the campus were visited. In each case the class members walked to and about the buildings, and talked about the things they saw. The day was ended by going to see the "Blow Hole," on the east coast of Oahu, and Sea Life Park, a noted marine aquarium, before returning to the Laie Campus.

The following day conversations about the trip to Honolulu were held. The students were asked what were the most interesting things they saw in Honolulu, what had they seen that they did not expect to see, and what they had hoped to see but did not see.

The Fourteenth Week

During the week of December 10, 1973, final skits on the pleasures and hazards of learning English were produced utilizing the same general procedures as before.

The Fifteenth Week

In the last week of December 17, 1973, the students were post-tested on the Michigan Test, and were interviewed two separate times following the Oral Production Examination format.

Throughout the experimental course the students were given many experiences of various types with English in real-life situations. They were propelled into using English daily both in and out of class. The experimental course was organized carefully so that some language-based activity was planned for each week. The overt grammatical explanations that the students received were given as the students requested it, or if it appeared from a questioning facial expression that they required it. The explanations usually took no more than five minutes.

For example, after a few days of speaking English with some adult English-as-a-second-language students, one of them pointed out that his researcher and his dormitory parents as well, sometimes were carelessly mispronouncing the English plural nouns! He and some of the other students were becoming quite familiar with English orthography. The researcher wrote seven familiar plural nouns on the board and repeated them aloud. Then he pointed out the voiced and the voiceless letters immediately preceding the "s," and marked each of the seven words as either voiced final segment in the singular, or voiceless. He then asked the students to say the plurals correctly. The explanation was adequate. The student who made the criticism was satisfied. He and the other members of the group now appeared to have a new confidence that perhaps the vocal and orthographic realizations of English were not so divergent after all. The researcher might have gone on and discussed the /iz/ form which follows final stridents to form the plural, or the /en/ plural suffix which rarely appears and/or the absence of a plural marker on some nouns. He did say, parenthetically, that there were other ways for nouns to show plurality, and that he would discuss them as they came up.

Even though all of the students in the group appeared to feel a sense of accomplishment, they continued to make errors in the pronunciation of the many English plurals which had been listed on the board; some such plurals are: books, keys, cats, dogs, maps, pens, clocks, and chairs.

There was no emphasis on the pace of the course. In monitoring each other's speech it was discovered that teachers often spoke more slowly and used "simpler" sentences with their foreign students than with native speakers--much the same way as adults speak more slowly and simply to children (Butterworth 1971 and Snow 1972).

When the experimental students made errors, they were viewed as evidence that acquisition was progressing towards standard speech. That is, the feeling of the instructor was that most of the errors were developmental in nature rather than due to interference from the students' first languages. Therefore, the students never were interrupted for correction. In fact, they were never "corrected" at all. At times, however, they were given a personalized correct "echo" of their incorrect utterances. For example, the following actual exchange:

Student: *I love swim.
Instructor: I love to dance. What else do you love to do?
Student: I love to dance, too.
Instructor: We both love to dance, then.
Student: Yeah, I love to dance every day.

Foreign accents were viewed as psychologically based and no attempt was made to "correct" student accents. It was felt the students would bring their pronunciation into conformity with standard English according to the degree that they wished to be identified with the standard-English-speaking community.

Grammar drills were felt to be unnecessary since the so-called "important" or "critical" aspects of English, which might be drilled in a typical second language classroom, are precisely those forms which occur most often in real-life communication in English. In other words, true critical forms occur with high frequency in normal English communication, therefore they are naturally "drilled," i.e., repeated, in the course of real English communication.

Throughout the course in every activity the instructors explained, in English, exactly what the new activity involved and then they performed the new activity as a demonstration in front of the students before inviting them to participate in it.

Classroom Procedures Utilized with the Control Group

In this section the physical arrangements and daily activities of the control group are described.

The control group consisted of twelve adult students--six men and six women. The duration of the control group program was fifteen weeks, from January 7, 1974, to April 15, 1974. The students in the control group were in class for fifty minutes each day for five days each week. Some weekend and homework activity also occupied the students as noted in this section. Cheryl Blasnek, a TESL major at Brigham Young University, Hawaii Campus, who assisted the researcher with the experimental group, also assisted him with the control group. She was responsible for approximately one-half of the teaching load for this group as well.

The well-known ESL textbook, English Sentence Structure by Robert K. Krohn was used exclusively in the classroom. Students in the control group were required to attend the language laboratory of the Learning Resource Center of the Brigham Young University, Hawaii Campus, for one hour per day for five days per week where they listened to various tapes designed for ESL students.

In each lesson the following format was followed: A brief introduction is given, in English, as to what the lesson will include. This introduction is followed by a "grammar frame" which includes examples and grammatical explanations. The example sentences are put on the board with a five-to-ten-minute discussion on the grammar point being illustrated. Sometimes there are comments and/or questions from the students at this point. The questions are answered, and then the oral drill is begun.

The researcher explained the type of drill and gave the first example and the first response. The class then imitated the researcher's model response and repeated it back to him in unison. After completing one drill with the entire class, the researcher often would repeat the drill, calling on students to give individual responses. These drills took the form of question and answers, paradigm repetitions, specific item substitutions, concatenations, and rearrangements.

After finishing a drill, there were occasional questions. The researcher made every attempt to keep his explanations brief and to use appropriate examples from the drills to illustrate the grammar point under discussion.

Students were given daily homework assignments requiring one and one-half to two hours of out-of-class preparation. There were two student parties in the researcher's home during the period of the control group program. The assignments were to practice and write out the drills utilized in class that day. The researcher also provided five to ten minutes each day for a conversation period during which the researcher asked individual students non-drill based questions which were designed to permit the students to use the new grammar points with their own responses.

In the control group, students were not permitted to make any errors since nearly all of their utterances were repetitions of the teacher's "native pace" model. If students did make any grammatical or pronunciation errors, they were provided with a correct model immediately.

The Evaluation Procedures

Communication Testing

Fluency in conversation is not difficult to determine--one is either adjudged as being proficient or nonproficient, as pointed out by Harris. However, degrees of proficiency are difficult to determine. Comprehension and pronunciation present serious problems for objective evaluation. For the purposes of this study, the researcher, after much consideration, decided to use a graded evaluation instrument with a relatively structured interview to determine degree of proficiency. This device was chosen in preference over a completely unstructured conversation interview, or a highly structured format requiring students to record and respond to other speech samples for discrimination, or a paper and pencil objective test--each of which presumably provides some indirect evidence of speaking ability (Harris 1969).

According to Harris, the rated interview is the most widely used and accepted method of adjudging oral proficiency. For the testing in this experiment an instructor or a teaching assistant at the Brigham Young University, Hawaii Campus was trained in giving and rating the Interview and Oral Production Test segment of the Placement Test of English for Speakers of Other Languages (E.P.T.) referred to as "the Oral Production Test." This test segment consists of short questions addressed to the student followed by an informal "guided" conversation centered around a series of pictures. Interviewers were given specific instructions regarding the administration of the test. They also were provided with clear, precise statements which were as mutually exclusive behaviorally as possible for each scale point. Copies of the instructions and the Interview and Oral Production Test are found in Appendix A as also is a copy of the Oral Production Evaluation Sheet.

The Placement Test of English for Speakers of Other Languages (E.P.T.) is a test designed to measure the level of proficiency in English among foreign students. It was developed to fill the need for an instrument to determine the proficiency level of these students and to evaluate their oral production. The Interview and Oral Production Test segment was developed in consultation with Professor Theodore Plaister, an acknowledged testing authority in English as a Second Language at the University of Hawaii, and also under the general guidance and supervision of ESL Specialist Margery Terpstra, and TESL authority Dr. Ruth Crymes of the Hawaii Curriculum Center at the University of Hawaii. It was prepared according to the following general guidelines:

(1) Content is based on several factors--portions of the interview take into consideration the following:
    (a) Contrastive features of the languages and backgrounds of the foreign students are employed.
    (b) Actual errors are revealed in the speech of foreign students.
    (c) Accepted TESL principles are used.

(2) Format which is consistent and easy to follow is utilized.

(3) Coverage of only the fundamental skills is made; efficiency in the use of time is considered.

(4) The administration of the test is simple for teachers with relatively limited experience in testing

(Curriculum Research Contract 1969).

One weakness with the oral interview technique is its tendency to have a rather low reliability, since no two interviews are conducted exactly alike, even by the same interviewer. It was with this realization that the selection of several interviewers was made in order to get as broad a perspective of the ability of the group as possible under the circumstances. In each case the student was interviewed by two interviewers. The average of the composite score from the two interviews was taken as the score for each interviewee.

Structural Testing

There are two universally accepted structural tests for measuring a student's progress in English as a Second Language. They are: the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), and the Michigan Test Battery of English Proficiency, referred to as the Michigan Test. Both tests measure a student's comprehension and correct use of vocabulary and grammatical items. The TOEFL is administered by the Educational Testing Service of Princeton, New Jersey, and administered periodically at specifically scheduled times and locations. The researcher, in view of living and working in Hawaii, was therefore unable to use this test as a measuring device for the purposes of his study.

On the other hand, the Michigan Test, of perhaps greater reliability than the TOEFL, is given each semester at Laie, Hawaii, by the Communications and Language Arts Division of Brigham Young University, Hawaii Campus. The high reliability of the Michigan Test service for students at the Hawaii Campus of the Brigham Young University has been noted (Pack 1972:5). The equated Michigan Test scores were used to measure improvement for this study. Copies of the Michigan Test are not included in the Appendix inasmuch as they are copyrighted.

Evaluation

Students in the experimental group were rated at the beginning of the program in the second week of September, and again in the second week of December of the same year at the termination of the program. Students in the control group were rated in the second week in January and again in the second week in April.

The experimental group and the control group were not taught during the same fifteen-week semester since the researcher had other teaching responsibilities making two ESL classes in the same semester impossible to schedule.

These two testing procedures, communication and structural, were the only types of testing which were used. No other subjective criteria were used.

In order to evaluate any improvement, the mean group improvement scores of the two groups were contrasted. Measurement of mean group improvement is a widely accepted method of evaluating a language course. For example, in a study of the effectiveness of dialogues, it was discovered through analysis of group mean improvement with experimental and creative groups that pattern practice drills assist student comprehension (Wajskop-Hianne and Renkin 1968:63).

In order to validate the hypothesis underlying this study mean group improvement was contrasted for significant differences in both structural and communication testing. The underlying hypothesis is that adults can acquire successfully a second language when they avoid common foreign language classroom activities, such as drills, but rather are presented with and participate in real-life second language situations proceeding at their own pace.

Because two samples were small and were to be compared and contrasted, the researcher used the _t_ test. This test is used to measure the significance of difference between the means of small samples. This requires the calculation and evaluation of a statistic known as _t_ which is a quotient which takes into account both the extent of the difference between the means and the variability of the samples. In other words, _t_ is the ratio of the difference between the two sample means to the standard error of this difference.

Evaluation of _t_ involves accepting or rejecting a hypothesis null correlation of the two samples based on the level of significance. If the level of significance is very small, the null hypothesis is rejected as improbable and the obtained difference between the sample means is regarded as significant. If, however, the level of significance is large, little doubt is cast on the hypothesis, and the obtained difference cannot be regarded as significant.

Whether a difference in mean group scores is to be taken as statistically significant or not depends upon the probability that a given difference could have arisen "by chance." Researchers, for convenience, have chosen several arbitrary "levels" of significance. The confidence with which one accepts or rejects a difference as being significant depends on the level adopted. The level accepted is set before data is collected (Garrett 1958:216).

"Significance" for the purpose of this study was set at the .05 level of significance or better in accordance with an accepted standard in educational research. The .02 level of significance is more exacting than the .05 level. In this study this level is referred to as "very significant." The .01 level is more exacting than the .02 and is referred to as "highly significant." The .002, ten times as exacting as the .02 level, is referred to as "extremely significant" (Babbie 1973:309).

Any evaluation of this study should consider that the data are gathered from an extremely small population sample; therefore the results must be treated carefully.

CHAPTER IV

THE FINDINGS

The results of the pre-program and post-program evaluation procedures utilized in the experimental and control programs, comprise this chapter. The statistical procedures utilized to measure the significance of the results are found in Appendix B.

The first four evaluative procedures undertaken were to contrast the results between pre-experiment and post-experiment tests given to groups in order to determine if they had made a significant increase in English skills as measured by structural and communication testing.

Figures 1, 2, 3, and 4, which follow, illustrate the data regarding evaluative procedures undertaken to determine if both groups had made a significant increase in English language skills measured by structural and communication testing.

The figures evidence that "extremely" or "highly" significant increases in English language skills measured by both structural and communication testing were attained by both the experimental and control groups.

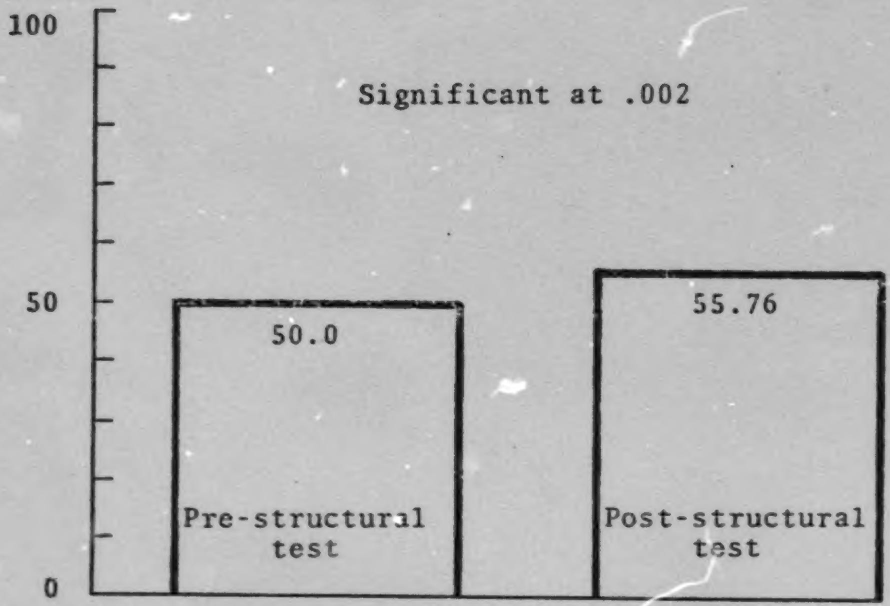


Figure 1.--Significance of Difference Between Mean Scores on Pre-Structural and Post-Structural Tests Given to the Experimental Group

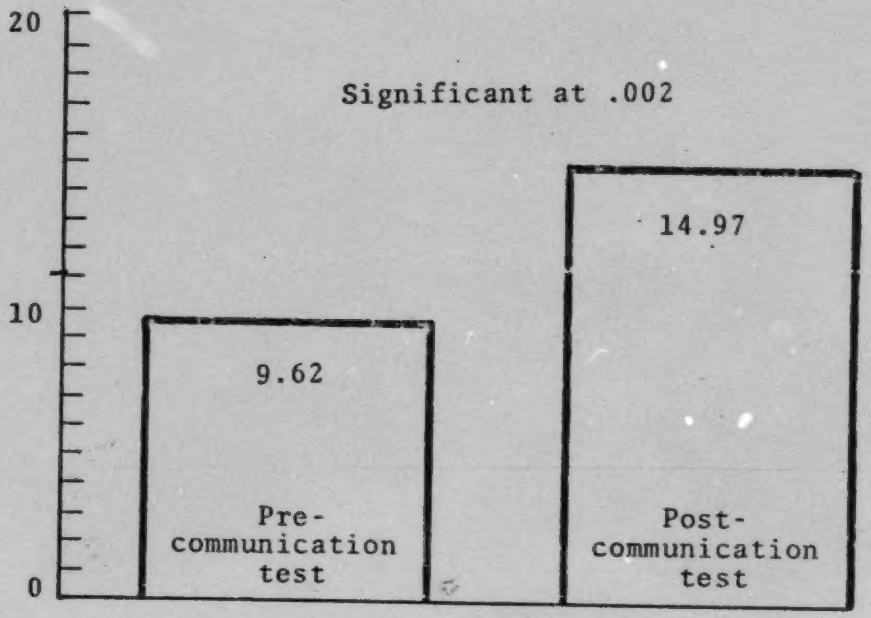


Figure 2.--Significance of Difference Between Mean Scores on Pre-Communication and Post-Communication Tests Given to the Experimental Group

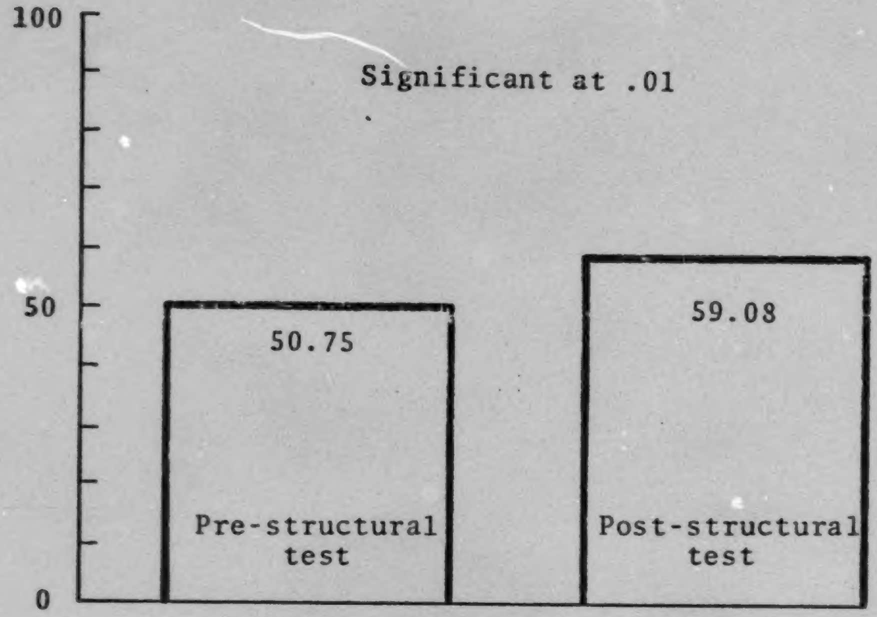


Figure 3.--Significance of Difference Between Mean Scores on Pre-Structural and Post-Structural Tests Given to the Control Group

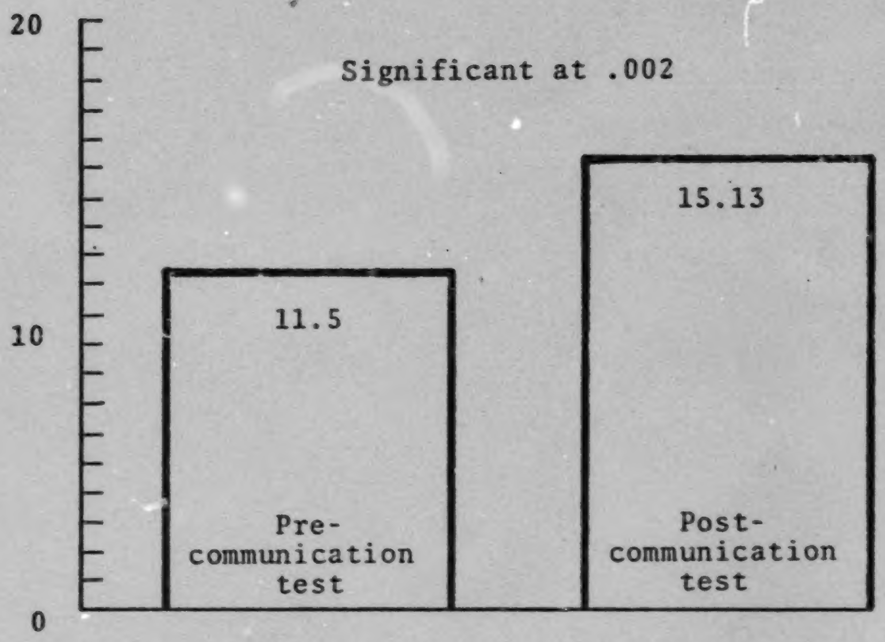


Figure 4.--Significance of Difference Between Mean Scores on Pre-Communication and Post-Communication Tests Given to the Control Group

The purpose of the next evaluative procedures undertaken was to discover any significant difference between the experimental and the control group with respect to English language skills as measured by structural and communication testing at the beginning of the experiment to determine if the two groups were well matched, or at the end of the experiment to see if one group exceeded the other in any way.

Figures 5, 6, 7, and 8, which follow, show the results of the evaluative procedure undertaken to determine if there were any significant difference between the experimental and the control groups in English language skills measured by structural and communication tests at the beginning or at the end of the experiment.

Figures 5, 6, 7, and 8 illustrate that no significant difference existed between the experimental and the control groups with respect to English language skills measured by structural and communication testing at the beginning or at the end of the experiment. In other words, both groups began and ended the experiment at the same level of proficiency in structural and communication English language skills.

The ninth evaluative procedure undertaken was for the purpose of discovering any significant difference between the experimental and the control groups with respect to improvement in English language skills measured by structural testing between the beginning and

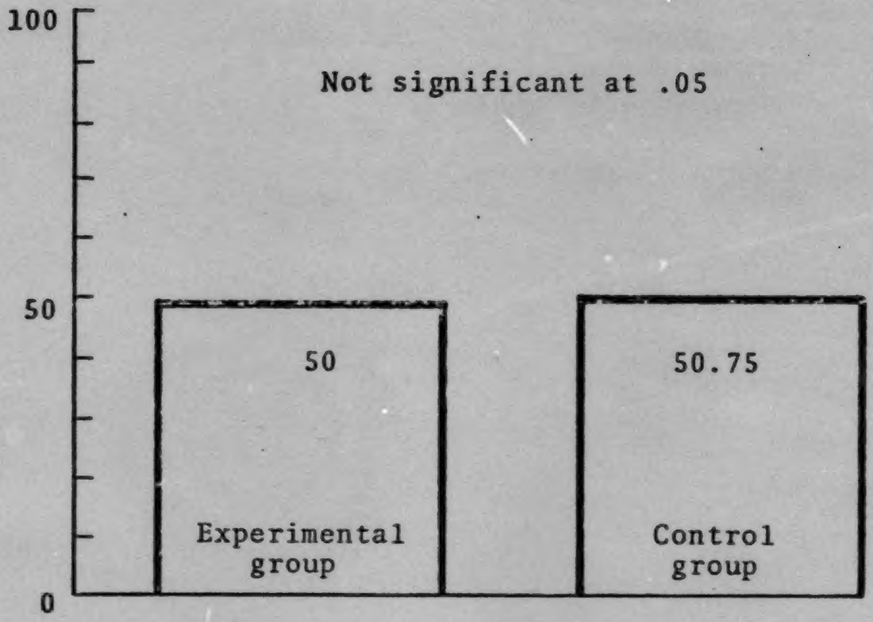


Figure 5.--Significance of Difference Between the Two Groups in Pre-Experiment Structural Tests

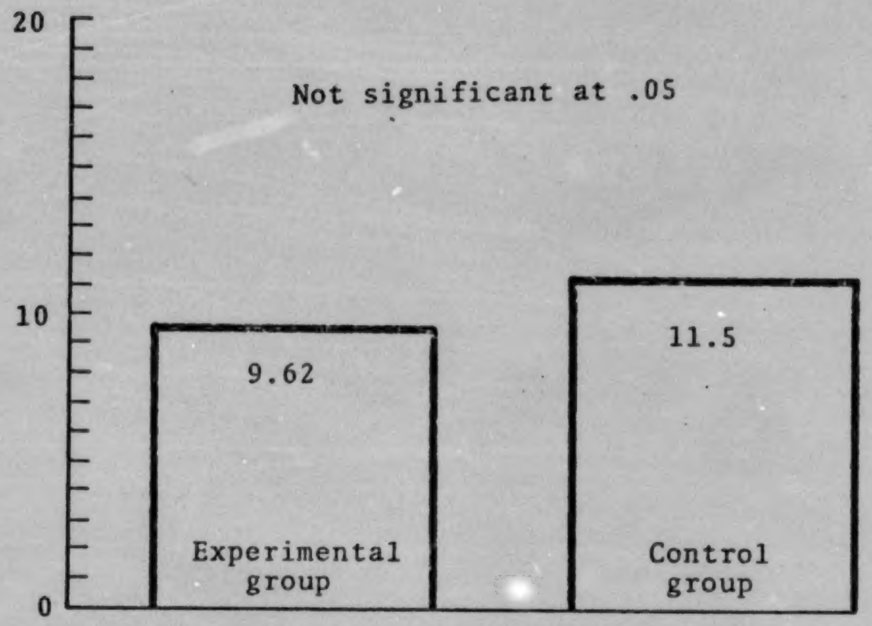


Figure 6.--Significance of Difference Between the Two Groups in Pre-Experiment Communication Tests

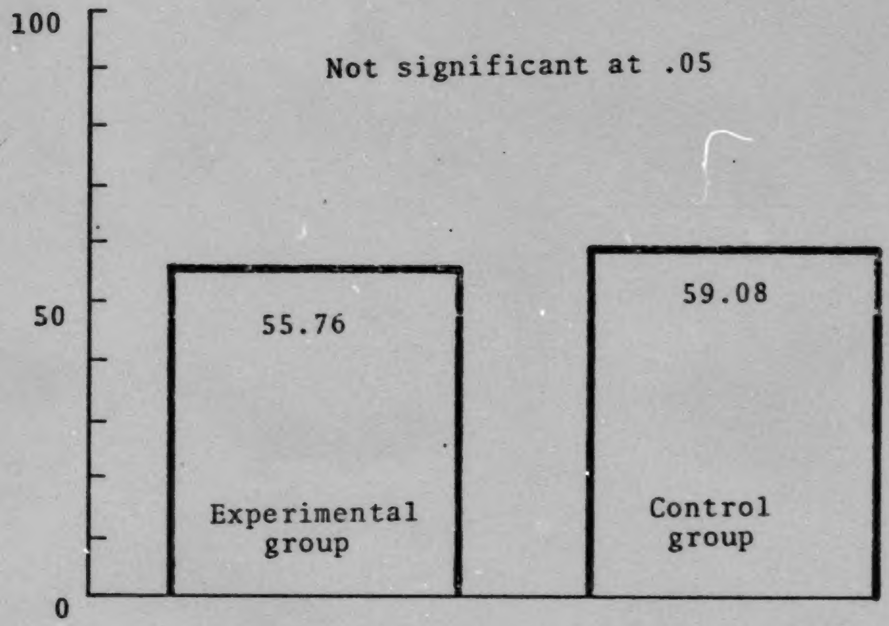


Figure 7.--Significance of Difference Between the Two Groups in Post-Experiment Structural Tests

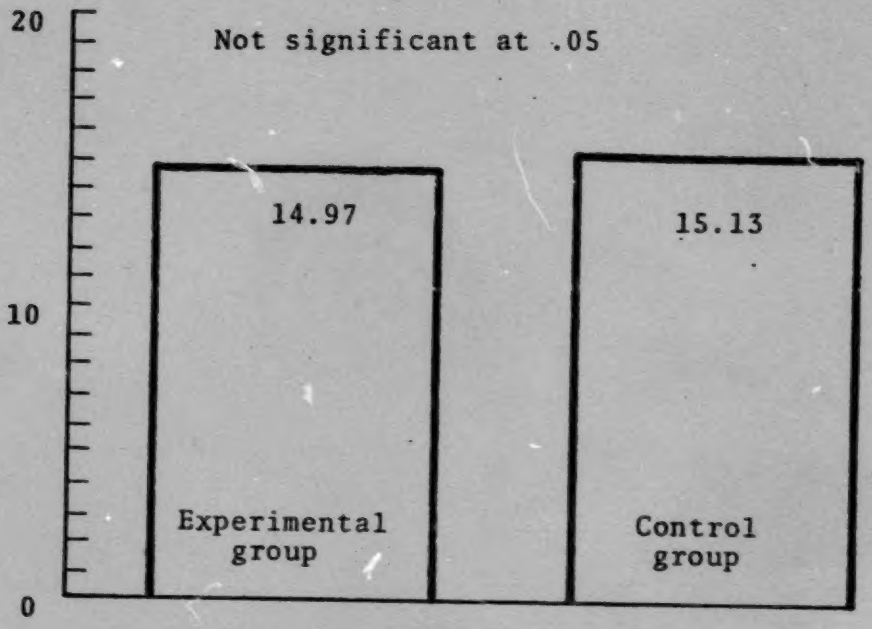


Figure 8.--Significance of Difference Between the Two Groups in Post-Experiment Communication Tests

the end of the experiment.

Figure 9, which follows, presents the results of the evaluative procedure undertaken to determine if there were any significant differences between the experimental and the control groups in English language skills measured by structural tests between the beginning and the end of the experiment.

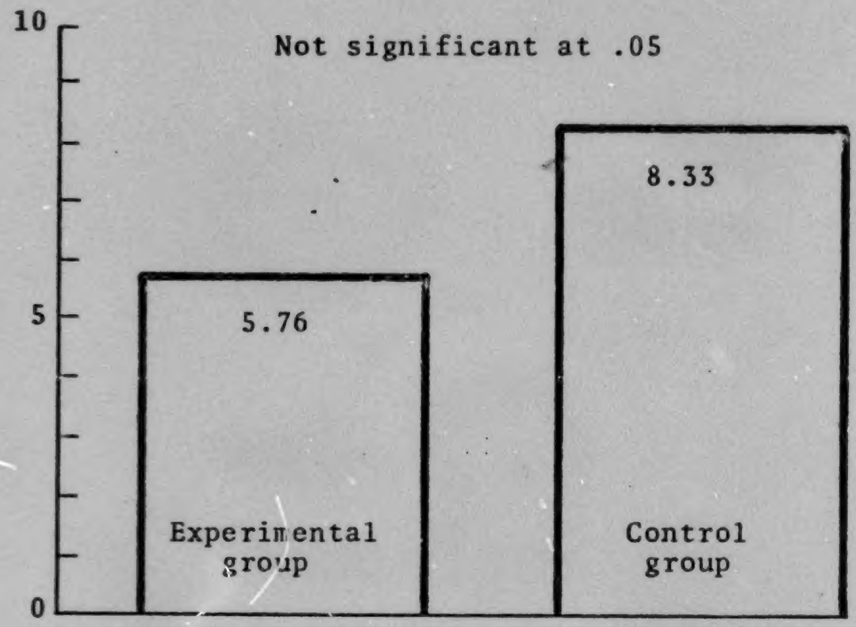


Figure 9.--Significance of Difference Between the Two Groups in Improvement on Structural Tests

Figure 9 shows that no significant difference existed between the experimental and the control groups with respect to improvement in English language skills measured by structural testing between the beginning and the end of the experiment. This means that the control group did not significantly out-perform the experimental group in structural English skills.

The tenth evaluative procedure undertaken was for the purpose of discovering any significant difference between the experimental and the control group with respect to any improvement in English language skills measured by communication testing between the beginning and the end of the experiment.

Figure 10, which follows, illustrates the results of the evaluative procedure undertaken to determine if there were any significant difference between the experimental and the control groups in English language skills measured by communication tests between the beginning and the end of the experiment.

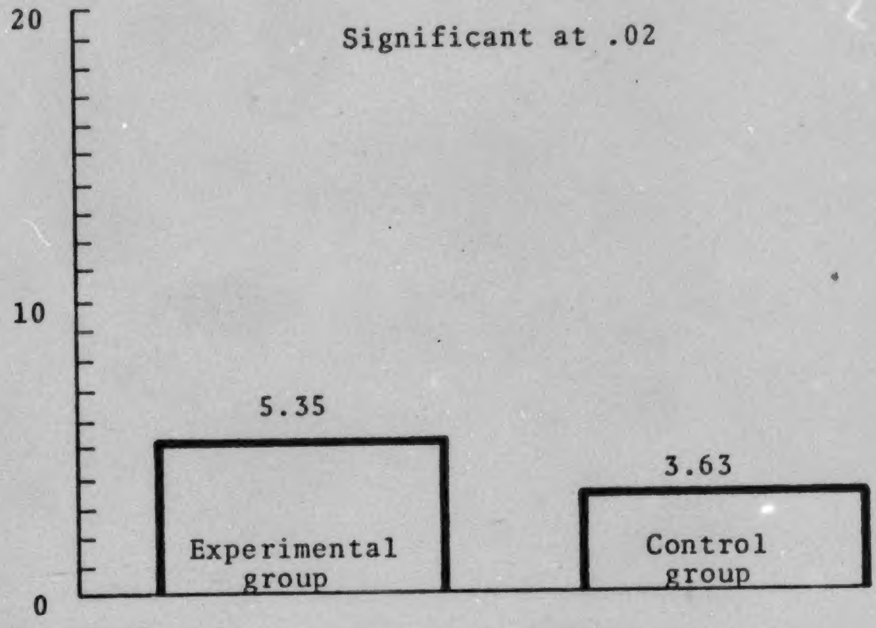


Figure 10.--Significance of Difference Between the Two Groups in Improvement on Communication Tests

Figure 10 illustrates a very significant difference between the experimental and the control group with respect to English language skills measured by communication testing between the beginning and the end of the experiment. This means that the experimental group made significantly greater progress than the control group in communication English skills in a fifteen-week period of utilizing informal, but planned, situational exercises in the classroom as outlined in Appendix D, rather than the methodology prescribed by many second language textbooks.

The results of the pre-course testing with both the structural and communication testing showed no significant difference between the means of both the experimental group and the control group as illustrated by Figure 5 and Figure 6.

The fact that there was no significant difference between these groups established by pre-course testing affirms that the two groups have a common basis for comparison in that the only difference between them is the variable of the methodology under question (English and English 1958:120).

Pre-course testing with tests which evaluate English language skills which measured both structural and communication ability compared with post-course testing showed both the experimental group and the control group made highly or extremely significant gains in both structural and communication skills as illustrated by

Figures 1, 2, 3, and 4. The result of identical post-course tests that evaluate English language skills, which measured structural and communication ability, showed no significant difference between the means of the experimental and the control groups as illustrated by Figures 7 and 8.

Since the two groups began the courses at significantly identical levels with both structural and conversational testing and ended the course both separately having made significant gains at substantially identical levels of proficiency, one might be led to the conclusion that the methodology under investigation was irrelevant to the improvement of the groups. However, this was not the case as will be shown.

One also might suspect that a group being lectured and drilled on structural concepts for fifteen weeks would out-perform an identical group who had no lecture or drill or structural concepts for an identical period of time.

Considering the improvement each group made with respect to structural testing, one discovers that the control group showed slightly better improvement; however, the difference in improvement was not significant, as illustrated by Figure 9.

One also might suspect that a group focusing on communication activities for fifteen weeks would out-perform an identical group who did not have this focus.

Contrasting the improvement each group made with respect to communication testing, it was discovered that the experimental group showed very significant improvement over the control group, as illustrated by Figure 10.

Figure 11, which follows, summarizes the improvement made by both groups in terms of improvement in English language skills measured by structural testing.

In Figure 11, one sees that both groups made significant progress in structural skills as measured by the Michigan Test, and that the control group did not make significantly greater improvement when compared with the experimental group.

The experimental group began the experiment with a mean group score of 50. on the Michigan Test (100 points were possible) and ended the experiment with a mean group score of 55.76, showing an improvement of 5.76 points.

The control group began the experiment with a mean group score of 50.75 on the Michigan Test and ended the experiment with a mean group score of 59.08, showing an improvement of 8.33 points.

The improvements made by the two groups are compared. No significant difference, at the .05 level of significance, exists between them.. In other words, the control group, which utilized a structural approach, did not significantly out-perform the experimental group, which utilized a non-structural approach in English language skills which are measured by structural testing.

Figure 11.--Comparison of the Experimental and Control Groups with Respect to Structural Testing

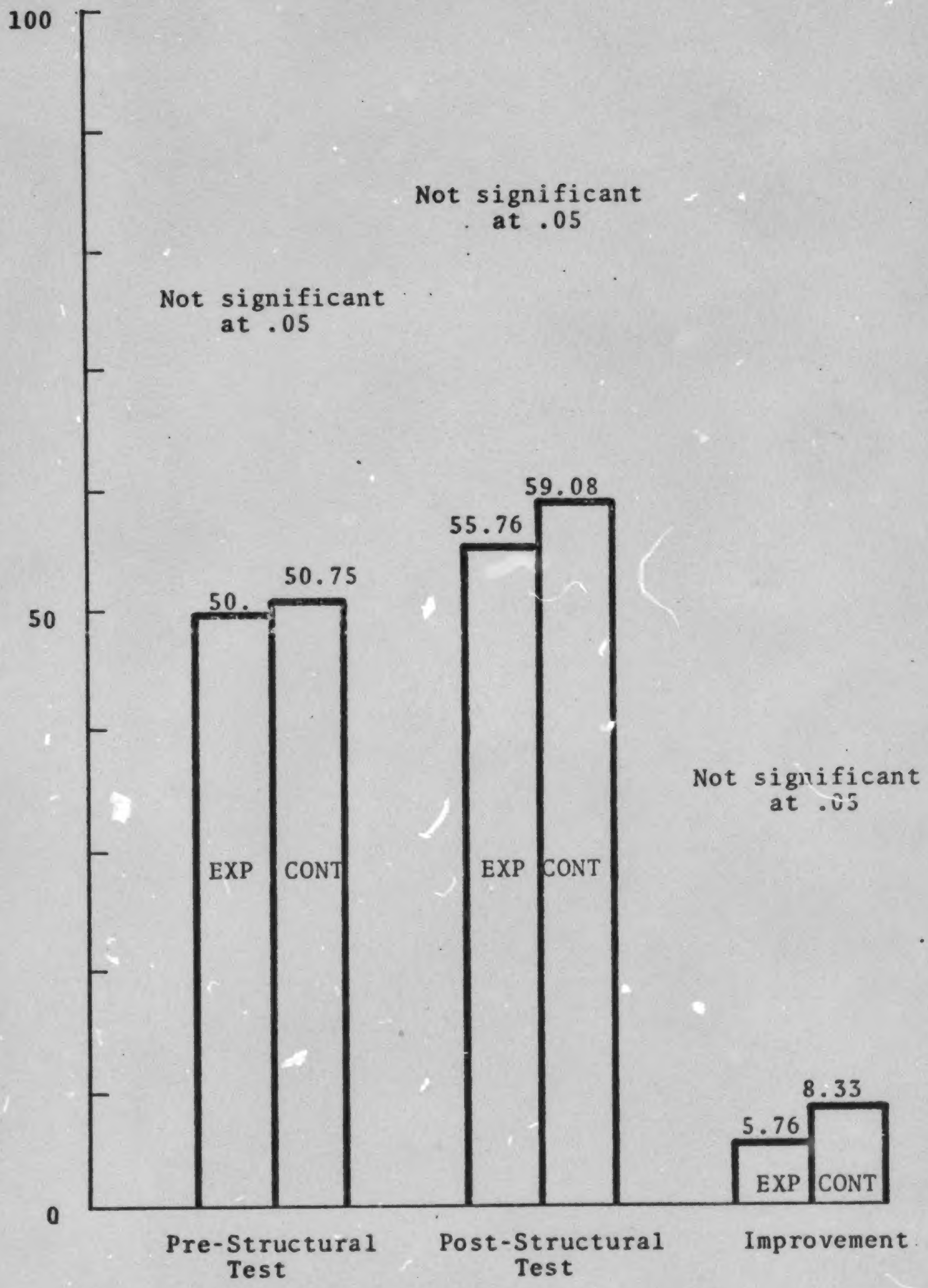


Figure 12, which follows, summarizes the improvement in English language skills measured by communication tests made by both groups.

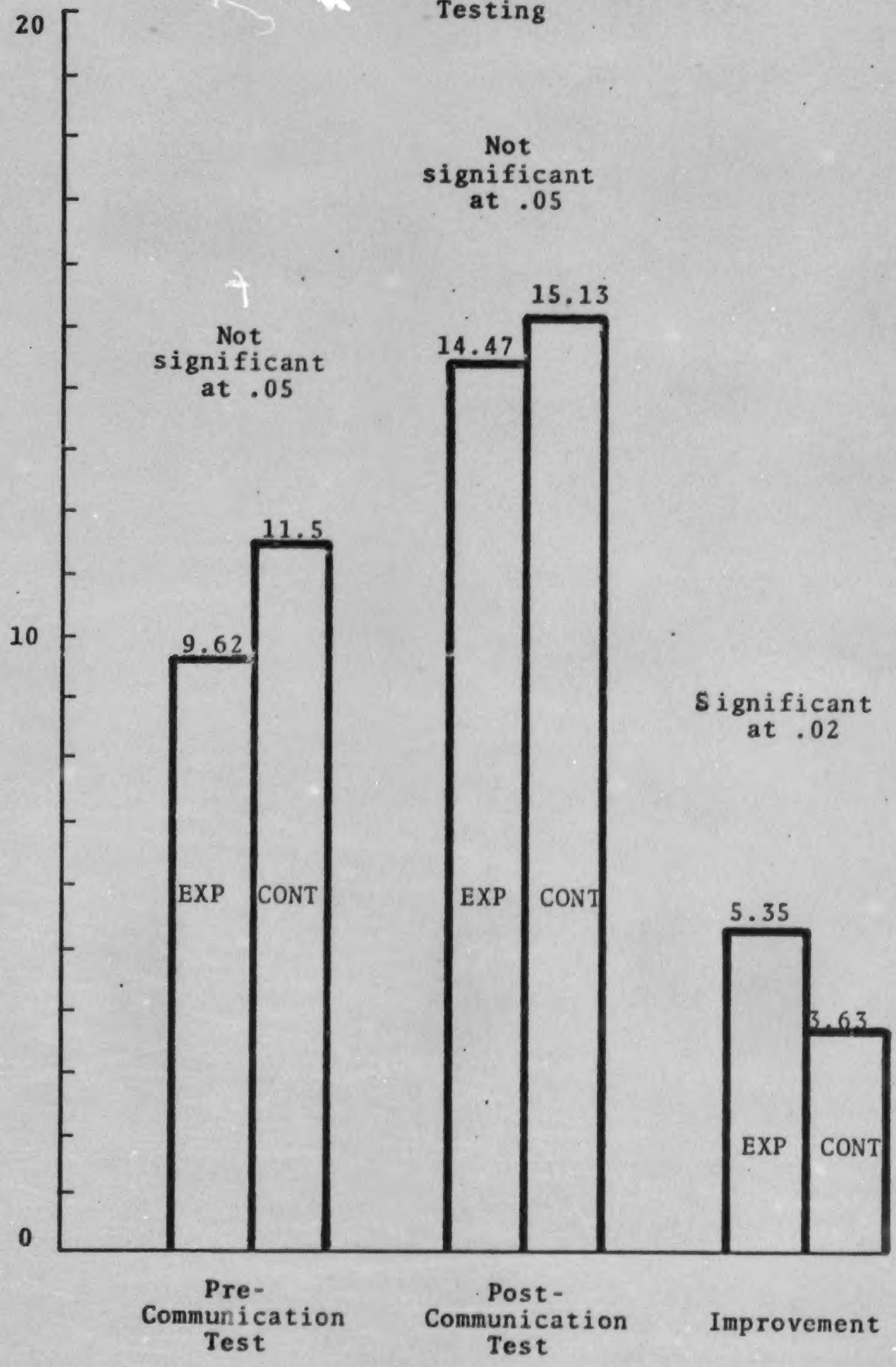
In Figure 12, one sees the significantly greater improvement made by the experimental group in communication skills as measured by the Oral Production Test when compared to the control group.

The experimental group began the experiment with a mean group score of 9.62 on the Oral Production Test (20 points were possible) and ended the experiment with a mean group score of 14.47, showing an improvement of 5.35 points.

The control group began the experiment with a mean group score of 11.5 on the Oral Production Test, and ended the experiment with a mean group score of 15.3, showing an improvement of 3.63 points.

The improvements made by the two groups are compared. A significant difference, at the .02 level of significance, existed between them. In other words, the experimental group made significantly greater progress than the control group in English language skills measured by communication testing in a fifteen-week period of utilizing informal, but well-planned, structural methods procedures in the classroom, as outlined in Appendix D, rather than the methodology prescribed by Audio-Lingual second language textbooks.

Figure 12.--Comparison of the Experimental and Control Groups with Respect to Communication Testing



CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Discussion

It must be borne in mind that the findings are based on the experience of a very small sample. The results should be considered as a pilot study for which more data are required to substantiate the implications of these findings.

Furthermore, the ramifications of experimenter bias and the Hawthorne effect must be considered when evaluating the findings. The experimenter bias effect (EBE) is the subtle and unintentional communication of the expected result by an experimenter to his colleagues and/or to his subjects. The Hawthorne effect is the tendency of subjects in some experiments to respond to nearly any change which appears designed for their benefit, apparently due to their appreciation that someone is giving them special attention (Biehler 1974:21).

Notwithstanding the foregoing observation, the extreme claim that second language acquisition for adults is identical to first language acquisition must be reevaluated as a result of this research. Psychological differences, which account for adults asking for grammatical explanations and possessing "foreign accents," were apparent in both the experimental and the control groups.

The opposing claim that adult second language acquisition is different from first language acquisition, from this limited study, also appears to be wanting.

In most of the important aspects, first and second language acquisition appear to be neither wholly identical with nor wholly different from each other. Both successful adults and children have similar linguistic motivation, neural apparatus, amount of time for language contact, stages of language acquisition, and cause for linguistic errors.

If one assumes that first and adult second language acquisition are identical, one might suggest that random and sporadic contact with the target language would be sufficient for adults as it is for children to acquire language. There could be no pedagogical plan of any sort since there is none for children. There would be very little, if any, explanation. All errors would be viewed as being developmental in nature and no attempt would be made to correct any errors. It seems self-evident that many adults would not be successful without some planning and assignments.

Under the assumption that first and adult second language acquisition are totally different, one might decide to lead the student through successive and increasingly difficult grammatical and pronunciation drills giving clear, complete explanations about the linguistic facts of the target language. One might also require the student to speak without any errors at native adult speed. All errors might be viewed as being caused by interference from the first language, and all errors must be overtly corrected, including "foreign accents." One might assume his students are motivated to study a second language because they wish to use the language to "get ahead," i.e., to get a raise or a better job, graduate from a foreign university, et cetera, rather than to assimilate with the target language culture as children are motivated to do.

Under the assumption that first and adult second language acquisition are similar, one may require students to develop reports, make interviews, produce skits and so forth to give them the necessary contact with and participation in the target language with the realization that students often do not study on their own without any assigned work by a teacher.

A course under this latter assumption must be planned carefully so that the student has some activity which requires the use of the target language every day. This planning should be situational, involving situations in which speakers of the target language actually find themselves.

When adult second language students ask for grammatical explanations, they should be given them with the understanding that it is not necessary to examine every aspect of the language. These explanations appear to serve to give the students confidence that there is a principled reason for the grammatical phenomenon he has questioned and that, perhaps more importantly, the language is learnable. The instructor may speak in slower-than-adult native speech, which is what most people do anyway when speaking to adult foreigners (Butterworth 1972). Rapid native adult speech often confuses the second language learner. Student errors would be viewed as evidence of acquisition being mostly developmental with only a small percentage caused by interference from the learner's first language. Therefore, "connection" would be by occasional, personalized echo expansion and not by constant, overt correction of each ungrammatical or mispronounced utterance. The instructor should strive to get his students to develop integrative motivation, i.e., the desire to be accepted as members of the target language culture, with the realization that with only instrumental motivation, i.e., the desire to use the target language to "get ahead," the second language student will only progress so far. Foreign accents would be accepted as psychologically based and no attempt would be made to make the speakers sound like native speakers, but only to efficiently communicate with all native speakers in acceptable native speech.

Students in the experimental group spent fifteen weeks in an informal, although carefully planned, English environment. The program was one of total immersion, but was not "intensive." Total immersion signifies that the students were continually in an environment which maximized their participation in the English language. Therefore, instead of the typical classroom language learning situation in which the student is required to systematically study the structure and vocabulary of the target language in that language, the student is placed deliberately in an environment which provides maximal attentive contact with and participation in the target language by way of meaningful, real-life situations. At all times attempts were made to take the adult language learner's mind off the task as a task of learning the language.

Student feedback indicated that the class members had the feeling that they were not working hard enough. They indicated that they felt apprehensive without a textbook and drills.

Some of the presuppositions which characterize the experimental program include:

(1) The introduction of the language structures through meaningful, purposeful situations;

(2) Various experiences with real language;

(3) Consistent check on comprehension through normal conversational feedback;

(4) Careful programming of situations to stimulate communication;

(5) Use of language for necessary communication purposes;

(6) Use of small classroom groups for inter-group

communication and association;

(7) Use of a variety of stories, songs, pictures, skits, and realia typical in the culture of the target language; and

(8) Active use of the students' own creative and novel utterances rather than passive repetition of stereotyped patterns.

Questions not dealt with in this paper include:

(1) Ways of assisting untrained teachers in adapting such a program as outlined in this experiment;

(2) The most effective ways of introducing reading and writing in the new language; and

(3) More valid and valuable feedback and evaluation procedures for oral skills.

Clearly research in depth is still needed on many questions regarding second language learning. Longitudinal research with adults and small groups of children is still needed. At the same time, longitudinal research by foreign language teachers, second language curriculum specialists, and applied psychologists during the high school-age period also is essential in order to test the usefulness of experimental results with learners at various developmental levels in a school-structured environment.

While both groups made significant progress in both structural and communication testing, it is apparent that the experimental group in this study, without grammatical structuring drills and overt corrections, did make significantly greater progress, when compared to the control group in communication testing, and not significantly different progress with structural testing when compared with the control group. Perhaps under an extended and/or expanded program of the experimental type outlined, adults possibly would make as great or even greater improvement.

The program was enjoyable to conduct and supervise. Fellow teachers who visited the experimental group's classes and skit presentations generally found them enlightening as to what could be done in second language classes.

The researcher concurrently developed and wrote with the assistance of Michael E. Foley, an instructor at Brigham Young University, Hawaii Campus, the conversation section of a beginning course in English as a second language for use in Japan and Korea, utilizing the theoretical basics of the experimental program. These materials were written with the view in mind that second language acquisition is very similar to first language acquisition. Therefore, the materials were situationally, not grammatically, organized--no drills were built into the program and students were not to be overtly corrected. Short, "slice of life" dialogues were used to give the students the necessary contact with, and participation in, the second language, since being in Japan and Korea, they are deprived of a complete second language environment. The use of short dialogues in this way was suggested by Newmark and Reibel in the appendix to their revised 1963 presentation to the Linguistic Society of America (Newmark and Reibel 1968:160-164).

Clearly, the experimental program demonstrates that some adults can make significant progress in second languages if allowed to follow natural stages of language development by active contact with and participation in the second language in much the same way as children do in acquiring their first language.

Delimitations

Contact with and participation in problems in the target second language were viewed as absolutely critical to the program. Therefore, were it not for some unfortunate factors present in the Brigham Young University, Hawaii Campus environment, more spectacular contrasts possibly could have been expected. For example, some of the students were employed as language teachers of their native languages four to six hours each day. Others, whose native language was Japanese, worked in the nearby Polynesian Cultural Center as clerks and guides for Japanese tourists. Some of those who were not penalized in their second language area by employment, also were hindered in their experiences and participation in English by the fact that they had to live with relatives and/or fellow countrymen who insisted on speaking the native language all of the time the students were at home.

As the University does not enforce its "English only" rule, the rule is flagrantly violated. In order to overcome this problem, many students in this program religiously wore small pins labelled "English, Please." These were worn, however, even as the students conversed in their first languages.

Implications

Throughout this study one finds evidence that second language acquisition appears to be very similar to first language acquisition. Only the apparent need for grammatical explanations and the possible need for self-identity, resulting in a "foreign accent," appear to separate the adult second language learner from the child, in acquiring a first or second language. The implication is that second language teaching programs should be developed and written with this view in mind. For example, students should be allowed to pass through stages of second language acquisition rather than be required to speak as an adult after a few hours of contact with the target language. Specific recommendations are given in the Recommendations section (Chapter VI).

The results of the experimental progarm demonstrated that a program following these recommendations produced significant progress in English language skills measured by structural and communications testing. The experimental group also made significantly greater progress as evidenced in communication testing, although not significantly less progress as shown in structural testing, when measured against a control group using a standard second language teaching method described in Chapter III. A clear implication from these results is that second language programs avoiding structural organization, overt corrections and language drills may do as well or better than second language programs using these techniques. In place of a structural organization, the program should be situationally organized with activities of the type described in Chapter III in place of drills. In the communication exercises described in this work, the students are placed in situations wherein the contact with and participation in real-life situations involving the target language is maximized. As has been suggested elsewhere, memorization of short dialogues may provide the necessary target language contact and participation where there are insufficient native speakers with whom the students can speak (Newmark and Reibel 1968:160-164). Second language learners appear to profit from occasional echo expansion corrections by the instructor with *ad hoc* explanations rather than from constant overt corrections requiring repetition.

The implications for the re-writing, publishing, and disseminating of revised second language curricula and methods are far-reaching. Also, the implications regarding second language teachers taking refresher courses in the teaching of their specialty are enormous.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

This work proposed to show that successful second language acquisition can take place when adult second language learners avoid those standard, Audio-Lingual tactics or methods which second language teachers often prescribe; and when the second language teachers provide natural, life situations in which learners can acquire the target language.

In the work an experimental program is described wherein adult second language learners were surrounded by and participated in real-life second language situations. They were permitted to proceed at their own pace. They were not overtly corrected, and most importantly, they never participated in pronunciation or grammar drills.

This work attempted to test the hypothesis that the acquisition of a second language for children and adults is essentially the same as the acquisition of a first language (Newmark and Reibel 1963). This claim has been doubted seriously by many educators, among them Robin Lakoff, who maintained that evidence indicates that "...we cannot expect to recapitulate first language learning." (Lakoff 1969:140)

The fundamental question of this study lies in the significance of the differences between adult second language learners and first language learners.

It was shown that children acquire their first language by merely being in an environment where the language is being used and participating in activities in that environment which require language use. While adults often speak to children in slower and less complete sentences, they rarely correct their children's ungrammatical utterances. All children progress through various stages of language acquisition at their own pace, gradually bringing their speech into conformity with the adult speech of their linguistic environment.

On the other hand, adult language teachers usually prescribe course work for adults wishing to learn a second language which presents facts about the second language in an order developed by textbook writers which attempts to give simpler grammatical material before more complex material. Students in these courses usually participate in pronunciation and grammatical drills which are given at an intensive native speaker pace. Often second language students in such courses are immediately corrected for every error they make. Therefore, they are not allowed to progress through stages of acquisition at their own pace as children. For example, adults are not permitted to say such things as "goed" for "went," while children make such "developmental" errors without being corrected. Adults are expected to begin their acquisition of the second language at the most advanced stage of language acquisition--adult native speaker stage.

Recent literature is cited in Chapter II in support of the hypothesis showing that children acquiring first language and successful children and adult language learners have identical motivational goals in language acquisition; they may use identical periods of time devoted to language acquisition; they are not especially affected by first language interference; and their neurological language acquisition mechanisms have not atrophied due to lateralization. Two differences in adults and children are noted. Adults often ask for grammatical explanations while children do not. This difference is viewed as insignificant, since adults do not appear to assimilate these explanations in such a form that will immediately influence a student's linguistic production. Ad hoc explanations were given in the experimental program.

Adults, too, often have a "foreign accent" in the second languages acquired after puberty. This "foreign accent" phenomenon is identified in Chapter II as being psychologically based and therefore ridding adult second language students of it was considered as being beyond the goals of the experimental program.

Between September 1973 and April 1974 an experiment was conducted at Brigham Young University, Hawaii Campus, Laie, Hawaii. The experiment and its results are presented in detail. The results show that an experimental group, previously adjudged nonproficient in English as a second language, made significant progress in their acquisition of English without using any language drills, overt corrections, or "programmed" grammatical explanations. A control group using a standard Audio-Lingual drill approach (Krohn 1971) also was found to make significant progress. Both groups were evaluated by "structural" as well as "communication" type tests.

In addition, the experimental group showed significantly greater progress in "communication" testing, but not significantly less progress as shown in "structural" testing.

The results show that it is possible to make significant progress in acquiring a second language by the students surrounding themselves with the target language and participating in activities which require its use--the way in which children appear to acquire first and second languages. Experimental students also avoided many of those methods which have been prescribed in some textbooks.

If adults can acquire a second language using the methods and tactics children appear to use, perhaps other adults may be able to acquire a second language faster and even more efficiently with a more effective program of this type, rather than with a traditional program.

Conclusions

The results of the experiment show that adult second language learners can make significant progress in English language skills measured by standard communication and structural tests, following only communication procedures as outlined in Appendix D.

Specifically the following conclusions may be drawn:

(1) The use of situational communication exercises such as language games, interviews, dialogues, and skits were shown to be sufficient in making statistically significant progress in both structural and communication skills.

(2) Planning a second language course situationally rather than grammatically proved to be sufficient for significant target language improvement. For example, people should be introduced before asking them to interview each other (rather than presenting a lesson on the present tense before a lesson on the past tense).

(3) Speaking to students normally, even slowing down one's speech and using less complex sentences when the instructor felt it was necessary, proved to be sufficient for significant skill improvement.

(4) Giving short _ad hoc_ grammatical explanations when students asked for them or appeared to need them, rather than by course design, was sufficient for significant skill improvement.

(5) Correcting students by personalized echo-expansion

technique was sufficient for significant skill improvement.

(6) Ridding second language students of their "foreign accents" by drilling specific target language phonemes was not accomplished during the fifteen-week period of the course.

(7) Following a variety of activities designed to give student contact with varied target-language speaking situations proved to be sufficient for significant skill improvement.

(8) Both groups made statistically significant progress and similar improvement. Both groups also were in contact with the target language, participating in target-language activities, for approximately the same amounts of time during the experimental period. The critical activity, therefore, appears to be contact with and participation in target-language activities.

Recommendations

It is recommended that:

(1) In place of the use of mechanistic grammatical and pronunciation drills, teachers adopt a more meaningful approach using communication exercises of the type described in this work--such as language games, interviews, reports, dialogues, and skits. At least such an approach should be added to the mechanistic

routine in cases of instructors who may be prevented in the recommended methodology from making a complete change.

(2) In place of planning a curriculum on grammatical structuring, a second language course should be based on situations wherein speakers of the target language actually find themselves communicating with each other. For example, rather than begin a course with a lesson on the present tense with the verb Be and later in the course take up the past tense of Be, a course might well begin with the situation of two people meeting with no thought about what tenses or what verbs one uses; another situation could be asking a stranger for directions. These situations would be acted out as a skit or dialogue as recommended above.

(3) In place of a fast, "rapid fire" pace, instructors may talk with the students normally, as do most non-language teachers to foreign students, in slower, often less complex sentences.

(4) If adult second language students ask for grammatical explanations, the instructor should give explanations which are simple and confined to the point under question. They should be kept as short as possible.

(5) In place of overtly correcting all errors:

(a) The instructor should repeat back to the second language student the correct form, personalizing the phrase such as:

Student: My brother swim every day.

Instructor: My sister swims every day, too.

(b) Some instructors may feel the need to correct more "overtly," especially if the offending student is addressing the entire class as well as the instructor. There is no reason why the instructor could not say the incorrect sentence correctly when the offending student pauses without interrupting his communication.

(c) An instructor also should feel free to correctly model an utterance for a student who indicates he questions something he has just said.

(6) Since it is apparent from the literature as well as for the experiment that the great majority of second language learners retain some "foreign accent" even after weeks of concentration on specific points, instructors should accept some "foreign accent" as psychologically based and concentrate their effort at getting the second language students to be able to effectively communicate in an acceptable manner with native speakers of the target language. Specifically, students should be told each time the instructor is unable to understand an utterance, not with the rationale that they are mispronouncing the target language, but that they are not communicating in it.

(7) In place of a single second language textbook, a second language teacher should adopt a variety of

classroom activities which demonstrate the use of the target language and perhaps which may build its prestige--such as, for English as a second language, films of interviews with scientific, sports, motion-picture personalities in English, NASA films of astronauts communicating in English, et cetera. At least in place of a single textbook, several should be used adding interest and variety to the classroom.

(8) Second language programs should be designed to maximize student contact with and participation in the target language, allowing students to acquire second languages the way children appear to acquire their first language.

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APPENDIX A

THE COMMUNICATION EVALUATION INSTRUMENTS

PLACEMENT TEST OF ENGLISH
FOR SPEAKERS OF OTHER LANGUAGES

(E.P.T.)

INTERVIEW AND ORAL PRODUCTION TEST

INTERVIEW AND ORAL PRODUCTION TEST

Note to the Interviewer:

1. The interviewer should become thoroughly familiar with the content of the test and the format of the evaluation sheet. Ideally, there should be another person to rate the student so that the interviewer is freed of the task of rating a student at the same time he is conducting the interview. If this cannot be arranged, the interviewer should rate the student immediately after he has left the room and before interviewing another student. The evaluation should not take place during the actual interview for it may make the student nervous and distracted.

2. A pleasant, non-threatening atmosphere should be maintained. Every effort should be made to conduct the interview as informally as possible. What we want is to have the student speak so as to find out whether he can understand and communicate.

3. The formal, structured aspect of the interview, for our purposes, is the rating evaluation sheet and rating scale.

4. The main point is that there be four major sections covered:

    a. The purpose of Part A is to test whether the student understands questions and can respond appropriately.

    b. The purpose of Part B is to focus in on the student's pronunciation, intonation, etc. Since oral production is not dependent on original oral production then a mimicry test which covers a variety of vowel sounds and consonant clusters would be an efficient measure.

    Test items covering the above purposes have been suggested however the examiner can construct his own set of items.

    c. The purpose of Part C is to test whether the student can ask questions. If the student is particularly nervous the interviewer could tell him (in statement form) what to ask.

    d. The purpose of Part D is to see how well the student fares in a discussion situation. The test is to be informal in nature, such as an exchange of opinions and ideas between the interviewer and the student.

5. If the student is very nervous it might be easier for the student to do the mimicry test first.

6. If the interviewer feels the student cannot complete the oral production test, either because he is too nervous or cannot understand enough English, then the interview should be stopped immediately. Perhaps this same test may be administered at a later date, when the student has more confidence or when his English has improved.

SPECIFIC DIRECTIONS FOR THE INTERVIEW AND ORAL PRODUCTION TEST

PART A: CONVERSATION

Ask the following questions or questions of a similar nature. Rate the responses according to the scale provided.

Say:

I'm going to ask you some questions about yourself and your family.

Conversation:

1. What's your name?
2. Do you have any brothers and sisters? What are their names?
3. Where are you from?
4. What's your favorite subject?
5. What subject do you find most difficult?

PART B: MIMICRY

Examiner says:

I am going to read a sentence aloud. Listen carefully. I will say the sentence a second time.

(There should be a one-second interval between the sentence and the repetition of that sentence.)

The student is to repeat the sentence, he is not supposed to read it.

Say:

1. She's an old woman.
2. Thank you very much.
3. Please bring me a piece of paper, Florence.
4. That's a comfortable chair.

5. Where's your brother?

6. Charlie and Jan took the elevator.

7. Carol's looking for her car key.

8. Go away! I want to be alone!

9. My mother bought it for forty-five dollars.

10. Would you like to drive to Pearl City?

PART C: QUESTIONS

Say:

I am going to ask you to make questions. Listen first to what I want you to ask me. For example, if I say "Ask me what my name is" you would say, "What is your name?"

Say:

1. INTERVIEWER: Ask me for the time.
   STUDENT: What time is it? (please)

2. INTERVIEWER: Ask me if I like going shopping.
   STUDENT: Do you like going shopping?

3. INTERVIEWER: Ask me if I've been to the Mainland.
   STUDENT: Have you been to the Mainland?

4. INTERVIEWER: If you don't understand something and you want someone to explain it to you what would you say?
   STUDENT: I'm sorry, I don't understand. Will you please explain it to me?

5. INTERVIEWER: If you want to know whether you have any letters or not, how would you ask (for this information)?
   STUDENT: Do you know whether I have any letters?

6. **INTERVIEWER:** If you want to find out whether I'm coming to your place tomorrow, how would you say this?

STUDENT: Are you coming (over) to my place tomorrow?

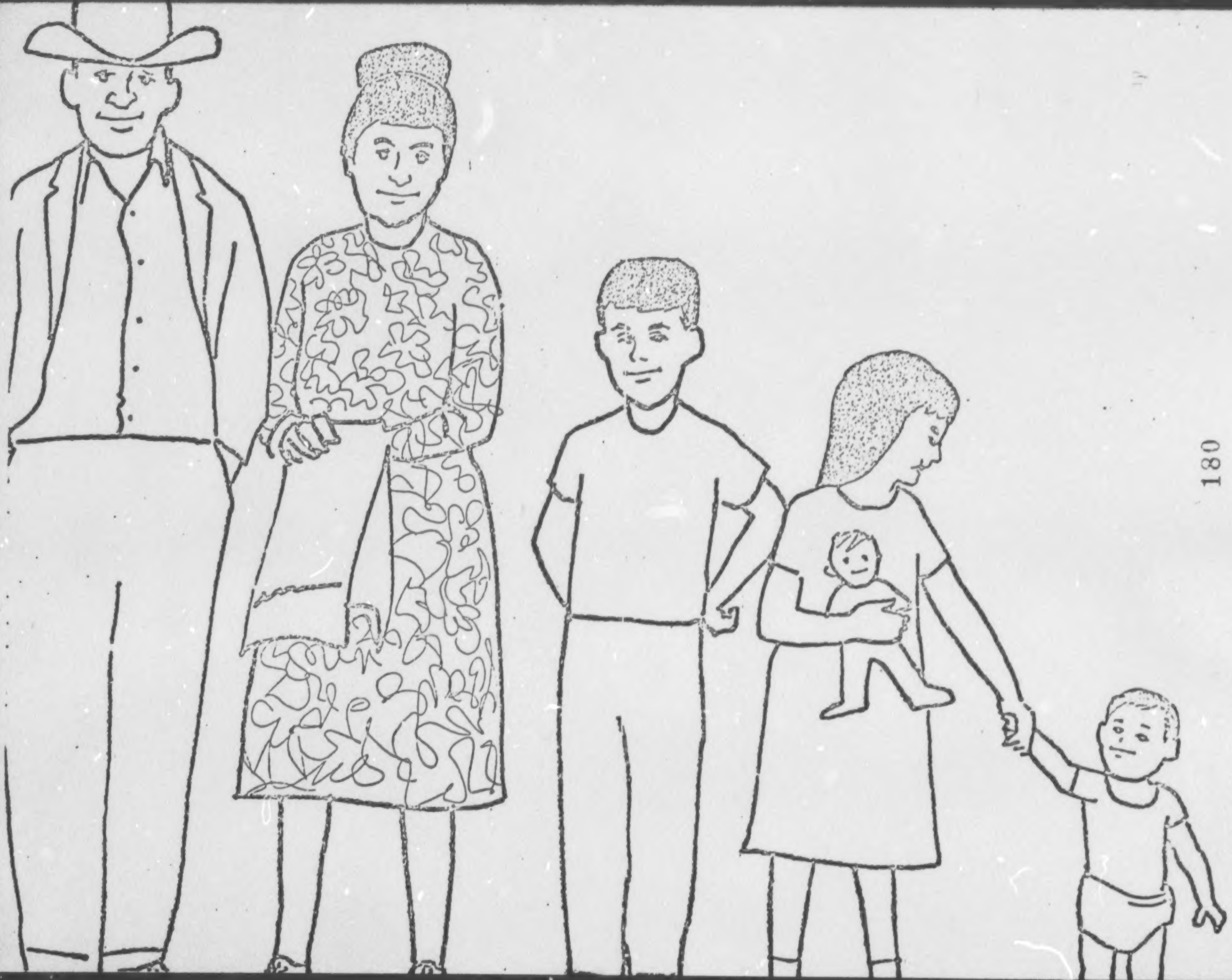
PART D: INFORMAL EXCHANGE

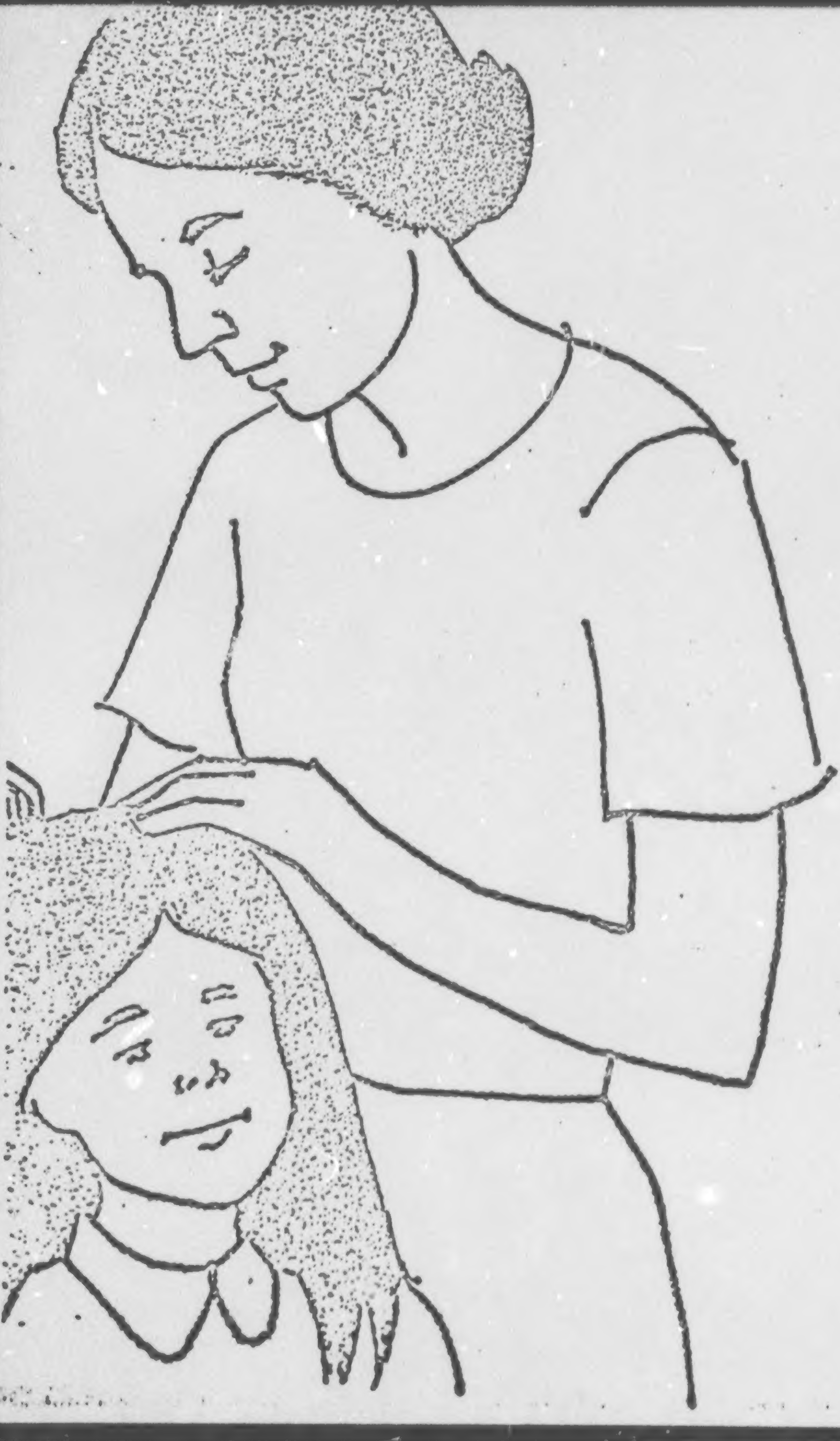
Say:

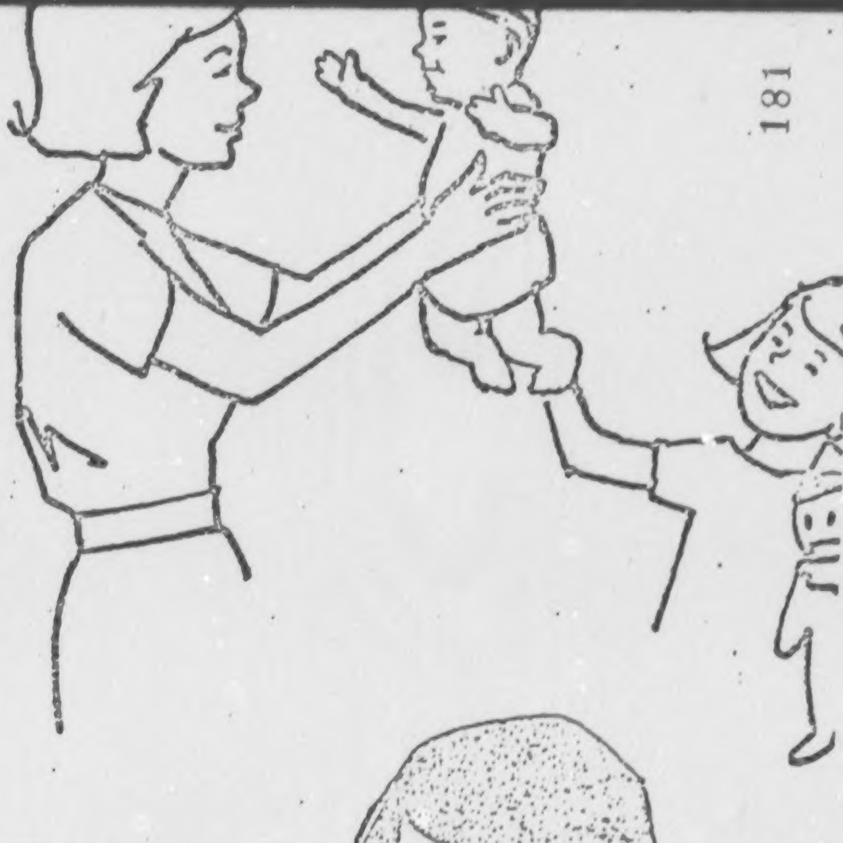
I'm going to show you 3 pictures. What do you see in these pictures?

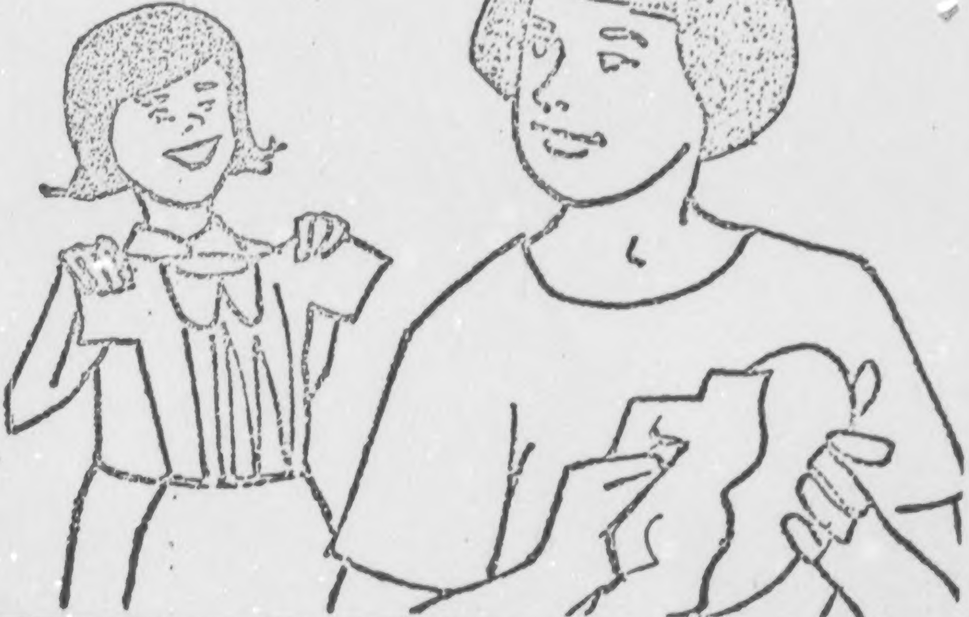
Tell me about your family and later on I'll tell you about mine.

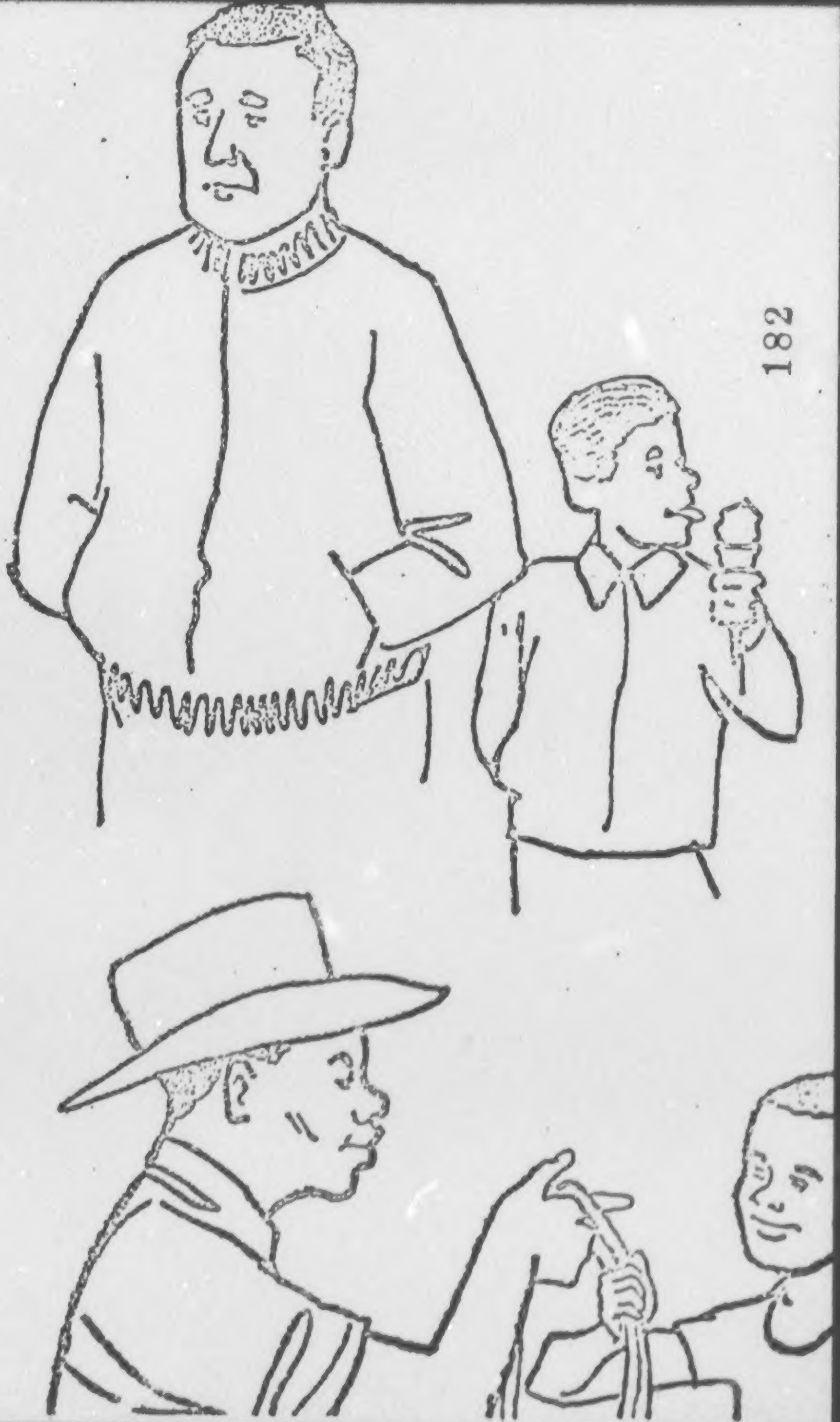
NOTE: This can serve as a springboard for an informal exchange between the interviewer and the student. The student should be encouraged to ask the interviewer some questions and to give comments freely.











Date____________________

Name_________________________________
(Please Print)

ORAL PRODUCTION EVALUATION

A. PRONUNCIATION

1. Is this speaker's pronunciation native? (Consider production of consonants, consonant clusters, vowels, morphophonemic variations, stress and intonation)

0 NO YES 5

If NO, how much interference does this cause in understanding the speaker?

Considerable	1
A fair amount	2
Some	3
Very little	4
None	5

B. GRAMMAR*

2. Is this speaker's grammar native? (This refers to utterances longer than "yes/no" and other very short answers.)

0 NO YES 5

If NO, how often are they grammatical?

Almost never	1
Rarely	2
Sometimes	3
Usually	4

C. FLUENCY

3. Is this speaker's fluency native? (Consider general smoothness of delivery; willingness to give more than minimum, abrupt responses; placement of pauses; pause-accompanying noises; correct use of words, transitional expressions, and self-correctional expressions.)

0 NO YES 5

If NO, how often is native fluency approached?

Almost never	1
Rarely	2
Sometimes	3
Usually	4

D. COMPREHENSION AND APPROPRIATENESS OF RESPONSE*

4. Does this speaker understand everything without difficulty and are his responses to questions appropriate? (Here appropriate covers native requests for repetition, as well as factually incorrect answers due to simple misunderstanding.)

0 NO

Almost never	1
Rarely	2
Sometimes	3
Usually	4
Always	5

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*Since Grammar, Comprehension and Appropriateness of Response are crucial in communication they should be considered the more important aspects of the oral production test.

TOTAL POINTS______

APPENDIX B

STATISTICAL PROCEDURES

1. Significance of Differences Between Mean Scores on Pre-Structural and Post-Structural Tests Given to the Experimental Group

Name	Pre	Post	DX	x	x^2
Mei Mei	36	48	12	6.24	38.94
Wayne	36	39	3	-2.76	7.62
Ester	40	43	3	-2.76	7.62
Chris	41	48	7	1.24	1.54
Iris	41	58	17	9.24	85.37
Sue	41	53	12	6.24	38.94
Keiko K.	42	48	6	.24	.06
Seiko	44	45	1	-4.76	22.66
Emily	48	49	1	-4.76	22.66
Gil	50	53	3	-2.76	7.62
Viliami	51	54	3	-2.76	7.62
Mayumi	52	57	5	- .76	.57
Ed	58	66	8	2.24	5.02
David	64	68	4	-1.76	3.10
Takeo	67	74	7	1.24	1.54
Carol	69	71	2	-3.76	14.14
Toni	70	74	4	-1.76	3.10
	850	948	98		$\Sigma x^2=274.11$

$N = 17$ $M_1=50.$ $M_2=55.76$ $M_3=5.76$

$$\text{MEAN D} = \frac{\Sigma DX}{N} = 5.76$$

$$x = DX - MD$$

$$SD = \sqrt{\frac{\Sigma x^2}{}} = \sqrt{\frac{274.11}{16}} = 4.14$$

$$SEMD = \frac{SD}{\sqrt{N}} = \frac{4.14}{4.12} = 1.005$$

$$t = \frac{MD}{SEMD} = \frac{4.14}{1.005} = 4.12$$ *(Significant at .002)*

$$df = (N-1) = 16$$

2. Significance of Differences Between Mean Scores on Pre-Communication and Post-Communication Tests Given to the Experimental Group

	Average of Two Interviews				
Name	Pre-Test (9/73)	Post-Test (12/73)	D	x	x^2
Mei Mei	11.5	16	4.5	- .85	.72
Wayne	13.0	16	3.0	-2.35	5.52
Ester	8.5	13.5	5.0	- .35	.12
Chris	.15	18	3.0	-2.35	5.52
Iris	10.5	13	2.5	-2.85	8.12
Sue	10	15.5	5.5	.15	.02
Keiko K.	9	17	8.0	2.65	7.02
Seiko	8	15.5	7.5	2.15	4.62
Emily	4.5	8	3.5	-1.85	3.42
Gil	6	11	5.0	- .35	.12
Viliami	9.5	14.5	5.0	- .35	.12
Mayumi	9	18	9.0	3.65	13.32
Ed	10	17.5	7.5	2.15	4.62
David	9.5	13	3.5	-1.85	3.42
Takeo	11	16	5.0	.35	.12
Carol C.	9	15.5	6.5	1.15	1.32
Toni	9.5	16.5	7.0	1.65	2.72
	$\Sigma=163.5$	$\Sigma=254.5$	$\Sigma=91.0$		$\Sigma x^2=60.84$
$N = 17$	$M_1 = 9.62$	$M_2=14.97$	$M_3=5.35$		

$$MD = \frac{\Sigma D}{N} = 5.35$$

$$SD = \sqrt{\frac{\Sigma x^2}{(N-1)}} = \sqrt{\frac{60.84}{16}} = 1.95$$

$$SEMD = \frac{SD}{\sqrt{N}} = \frac{1.95}{4.12} = .47$$

$$t = \frac{MD}{SEMD} = \frac{5.35}{.47} = 11.38$$ *(Significant at .002)*

$$df = (N-1) = 16$$

3. Significance of Differences Between Mean Scores on Pre-Structural and Post-Structural Tests Given to the Control Group

Name	Pre	Post	DX	x	x^2
Shinji	31	45	14	5.67	32.15
Houng	38	55	17	8.67	75.17
Khristine	43	45	2	-6.33	40.07
Toshi	48	54	6	-2.33	5.43
Jean-Louis	49	58	9	.67	.45
Lanna	53	49	-4	-12.33	152.03
Derquim	55	72	17	8.67	75.17
Keiko N.	55	58	3	-5.33	28.41
Hiro	58	58	0	-8.33	69.39
Takao	58	77	19	10.67	113.85
David N.	60	61	1	-7.33	53.73
Grace	61	77	16	7.76	58.83
	$\Sigma=609$ $M_1= 50.75$	$\Sigma=709$ $M_2= 59.08$	$\Sigma DX=100$ $M_3= 8.33$		$\Sigma x^2=704.68$

$N = 12$

$$MD = \frac{\Sigma DX}{N} = 8.33$$

$$x = DX - MD$$

$$SD = \sqrt{\frac{\Sigma x^2}{N-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{704.68}{11}} = \sqrt{64.06} = 8.004$$

$$SEMD = \frac{SD}{\sqrt{N}} = \frac{8.004}{3.46} = 2.31$$

$$t = \frac{MD}{SEMD} = \frac{8.33}{2.31} = 3.606$$ *(Significant at .01)*

$$df = (N-1) = 11$$

4. Significance of Differences Between Mean Scores on Pre-Communication and Post-Communication Tests Given to the Control Group

Name	Average of Two Interviews		D	x	x^2
	Pre-Test (1/74)	Post-Test (4/74)			
Shinji	11.5	15.5	4	.37	.14
Houng	6.0	13.0	6	2.37	5.62
Khristine	10.0	14.0	4	.37	.14
Toshi	15.5	17.5	2	-1.63	2.66
Jean-Louis	16.0	17.5	1.5	-2.13	4.54
Lanna	6.5	12.5	6	2.36	5.62
Derquim	9.5	15.0	5.5	1.87	3.50
Keiko N.	11.5	13.5	2.0	-1.63	2.66
Hiro	14.5	17.0	2.5	-1.13	1.28
Takao	9.5	14.0	4.5	.87	.76
David N.	11.0	15.0	4	.37	.14
Grace	16.5	18.0	1.5	-2.13	4.54
	$\Sigma=138.0$ $M_1= 11.5$	$\Sigma=181.5$ $M_2= 15.13$	$\Sigma=43.5$ $M_3= 3.63$		$\Sigma x^2=31.60$

$N = 12$

$$MD = \frac{\Sigma D}{N} = 3.63$$

$$SD = \sqrt{\frac{\Sigma x^2}{(N-1)}} = \sqrt{\frac{31.6}{11}} = 1.69$$

$$SEMD = \frac{SD}{\sqrt{N}} = \frac{1.69}{3.46} = .49$$

$$t = \frac{MD}{SEMD} = \frac{3.63}{.49} = 7.41$$ *(Significant at .002)*

$df = (N-1) = 11$

5. Significance of Differences Between the Two Groups in Pre-Experiment Structural Tests

Experimental Group				Control Group			
Name	X_1	x_1	x_1^2	Name	X_2	x_2	x_2^2
Mei	36	-14	196	Shi.	31	-19.75	390.06
Way.	36	-14	196	Hou.	38	-12.75	162.56
Est.	40	-10	100	Khr.	43	- 7.75	60.06
Chr.	41	- 9	81	Tos.	48	- 2.75	7.56
Iri.	41	- 9	81	J-L.	49	- 1.75	3.06
Sue	41	- 9	81	Lan.	53	2.25	5.06
Kei.	42	- 8	64	Der.	55	4.25	18.06
Sei.	44	- 6	36	Kei.	55	4.25	18.06
Emi.	48	- 2	4	Hir.	58	7.25	52.56
Gil	50	0	0	Tak.	58	7.25	52.56
Vil.	51	1	1	Dav.	60	9.25	85.56
May.	52	2	4	Gra.	61	10.25	105.06
Ed	58	8	64				
Dav.	64	14	196				
Tak.	67	17	289				
Car.	69	19	361				
Ton.	70	20	400				
	850		$\Sigma x_1^2=2154$		609		$\Sigma x_2^2=960.22$
	$N_1=17$ $M_1=50$				$N_2=12$ $M_2=50.75$		

$$df = (N_1-1) + (N_2-1) = 27$$

$$x = X - M$$

$$S = \sqrt{\frac{\Sigma x_1^2 + \Sigma x_2^2}{(N_1-1)+(N_2-1)}} = \sqrt{\frac{2154 + 960.22}{16 + 11}} = 10.74$$

$$D = M_1 - M_2 = .75$$

$$SE = \sqrt{\frac{S^2}{N_1} + \frac{S^2}{N_2}} = \sqrt{\frac{(10.74)^2}{17} + \frac{(10.74)^2}{12}} = 4.04$$

$$t = \frac{D}{SE} = \frac{.75}{4.04} = .185$$ *(Not significant at .05)*

6. Significance of Differences Between the Two Groups in Pre-Experiment Communication Tests

Experimental Group				Control Group			
Name	X_1	x_1	x_1^2	Name	X_2	x_2	x_2^2
Mei	11.5	1.88	3.53	Shi.	11.5	0	0
Way.	13.0	3.38	11.42	Hou.	6.0	-5.5	30.25
Est.	8.5	-1.12	1.25	Khr.	10.0	-1.5	2.25
Chr.	15.0	5.38	28.94	Tos.	15.5	4.0	16.0
Iri.	10.5	.88	.77	J-L.	16.0	4.5	20.25
Sue	10.0	.38	.62	Lan.	6.5	-5.0	25.0
Kei.	9.0	- .62	.38	Der.	9.5	-2.0	4.0
Sei.	8.0	-1.62	2.62	Kei.	11.5	0	0
Emi.	4.5	-5.12	26.21	Hir.	14.5	3.0	9.0
Gil	6.0	-3.62	13.10	Tak.	9.5	-2.0	4.0
Vil.	9.5	- .12	.01	Dav.	11.0	- .5	.25
May.	9.0	- .62	.38	Gra.	16.5	5.0	25.0
Ed	10.0	.38	.62				
Dav.	9.5	- .12	.01				
Tak.	11.0	1.38	1.9				
Car.	9.0	- .62	.38				
Ton.	9.5	- .12	.01				
	163.5		$\Sigma x_1^2=92.15$		138.0		$\Sigma x_2^2=136.0$
	$N_1=17$				$N_2=12$		
	$M_1=9.62$				$M_2=11.5$		

$$df = (N_1-1) + (N_2-1) = 27$$

$$S = \sqrt{\frac{\Sigma x_1^2 + \Sigma x_2^2}{(N_1-1)+(N_2-1)}} = \sqrt{\frac{92.15 + 136}{27}} = 2.9$$

$$D = M_1 - M_2 = 9.62 - 11.5 = 1.88$$

$$SE = \sqrt{\frac{S^2}{N_1} + \frac{S^2}{N_2}} = \sqrt{\frac{(2.9)^2}{17} + \frac{(2.9)^2}{12}} = 1.09$$

$$t = \frac{D}{SE} = \frac{1.88}{1.094} = 1.718$$ *(Not significant at .05)*

7. Significance of Differences Between the Two Groups in Post-Experiment Structural Tests

Experimental Group				Control Group			
Name	X_1	x_1	x_1^2	Name	X_2	x_2	x_2^2
Mei	48	- 7.76	60.22	Shi.	45	-14.08	198.25
Way.	39	-16.76	280.89	Hou.	55	- 4.08	16.65
Est.	43	-12.76	162.82	Khr.	45	-14.08	198.25
Chr.	48	- 7.76	60.22	Tos.	54	- 5.08	25.80
Iri.	58	2.25	5.02	J-L.	58	- 1.08	1.17
Sue	53	- 2.76	7.61	Lan.	49	-10.08	101.61
Kei.	48	- 7.76	60.22	Der.	72	12.92	166.92
Sei.	45	-10.76	115.78	Kei.	58	- 1.08	1.17
Emi.	49	- 6.76	45.70	Hir.	58	- 1.08	1.17
Gil	35	-20.76	430.98	Tak.	77	17.92	321.13
Vil.	54	- 1.76	3.10	Dav.	61	1.92	3.69
May.	57	1.24	1.53	Gra.	77	17.92	321.13
Ed	66	10.24	104.86				
Dav.	68	12.24	149.82				
Tak.	74	18.24	332.70				
Car.	71	15.24	232.25				
Ton.	74	18.24	332.70				
	948 $N_1=17$ $M_1=55.76$		$\Sigma x_1^2=2386.42$		709 $N_2=12$ $M_2=59.08$		$\Sigma x_2^2=1356.94$

$df = (N_1-1) + (N_2-1) = 27$

$x = X - M$

$$S = \sqrt{\frac{\Sigma x_1^2 + \Sigma x_2^2}{(N_1-1)+(N_2-1)}} = \sqrt{\frac{2386.42 + 1356.94}{16 + 11}} = 11.77$$

$D = M_1 - M_2 = 3.32$

$$SE = \sqrt{\frac{S^2}{N_1} + \frac{S^2}{N_2}} = \sqrt{\frac{(11.77)^2}{17} + \frac{(11.7)^2}{12}} = 4.43$$

$t = \frac{D}{SE} = \frac{3.32}{4.43} = .75$ *(Not significant at .05)*

8. Significance of Differences Between the Two Groups in Post-Experiment Communication Tests

Experimental Group				Control Group			
Name	X_1	x_1	x_1^2	Name	X_2	x_2	x_2^2
Mei	16.0	1.03	1.06	Shi.	15.5	.37	.14
Way.	16.0	1.03	1.06	Hou.	12.0	-3.13	9.80
Est.	13.5	-1.47	2.16	Khr.	14.0	-1.13	1.28
Chr.	18.0	3.03	9.18	Tos.	17.5	2.37	5.62
Iri.	13.0	-1.97	3.88	J L.	17.5	2.37	5.62
Sue	15.5	.53	.28	Lan.	12.5	-2.63	6.92
Kei.	17.0	2.03	4.12	Der.	15.0	- .13	.02
Sei.	15.5	.53	.28	Kei.	13.5	-1.63	2.66
Emi.	8.0	-6.97	48.58	Hir.	17.0	1.87	3.49
Gil	11.0	-3.97	15.76	Tak.	14.0	-1.13	1.28
Vil.	14.5	.47	.22	Dav.	15.0	- .13	.02
May.	18.0	3.03	9.19	Gra.	18.0	2.87	8.24
Ed	17.5	2.53	6.40				
Dav.	13.0	1.97	3.88				
Tak.	16.0	1.03	1.06				
Car.	15.5	.53	.28				
Ton.	16.5	1.53	2.34				
	254.5 $N_1=17$ $M_1=14.97$		$\Sigma x_1^2=109.73$		181.5 $N_2=12$ $M_2=15.13$		$\Sigma x_2^2=45.09$

$$df = (N_1 - 1) + (N_2 - 1) = 27$$

$$S = \sqrt{\frac{\Sigma x_1^2 + \Sigma x_2^2}{(N_1 - 1) + (N_2 - 1)}} = \sqrt{\frac{109.73 + 45.09}{27}} = 2.39$$

$$D = M_1 - M_2 = 14.97 - 15.13 = -.16$$

$$SE = \sqrt{\frac{S^2}{N_1} + \frac{S^2}{N_2}} = \sqrt{\frac{(2.39)^2}{17} + \frac{(2.39)^2}{12}} = .9$$

$$t = \frac{D}{SE} = \frac{.16}{.9} = .178$$ *(Not significant at .05)*

9. Significance of Differences Between the Two Groups in Improvement on Structural Tests

Experimental Group				Control Group			
Name	I_1	$x_1=I_1-M_1$	x_1^2	Name	I_2	$x_2=I_2-M_2$	x_2^2
Mei	12	6.24	38.94	Shi.	14	5.67	32.15
Way.	3	-2.76	7.62	Hou.	17	8.67	75.17
Est.	3	-2.76	7.62	Khr.	2	-6.33	40.07
Chr.	7	1.24	1.54	Tos.	6	-2.33	5.43
Iri.	17	8.24	85.31	J-L.	9	.67	.45
Sue	12	6.24	38.94	Lan.	-4	-12.33	152.03
Kei.	6	.24	.06	Der.	17	8.67	75.17
Sei.	1	-4.76	22.66	Kei.	3	-5.33	28.41
Emi.	1	-4.76	22.66	Hir.	0	-8.33	69.39
Gil	3	-2.76	7.62	Tak.	19	10.67	113.85
Vil.	3	-2.76	7.62	Dav.	1	-7.33	53.73
May.	5	- .76	.57	Gra.	16	7.76	58.83
Ed	8	2.24	5.02				
Dav.	4	-1.76	3.10				
Tak.	7	1.24	1.54				
Car.	2	-3.76	14.14				
Ton.	4	-1.76	3.10				
	98		$\Sigma x_1^2=274.11$		100		$\Sigma x_2^2=704.68$

$N_1=17$
$M_1=5.76$

$N_2=12$
$M_2=8.33$

$$df = (N_1-1) + (N_2-1) = 27$$

$$S = \sqrt{\frac{\Sigma x_1^2 + \Sigma x_2^2}{(N_1-1)+(N_2-1)}} = \sqrt{\frac{274.11 + 704.68}{16 + 11}} = \sqrt{36.25} = 6.02$$

$$D = M_1 - M_2 = 5.76 - 8.33 = -2.57$$

$$SE = \sqrt{\frac{S^2}{N_1} + \frac{S^2}{N_2}} = \sqrt{\frac{(6.02)^2}{17} + \frac{(6.02)^2}{12}} = \sqrt{5.15} = 2.27$$

$$t = \frac{D}{SE} = \frac{2.57}{2.27} = 1.132$$ *(Not significant at .05)*

10. Significance of Differences Between the Two Groups in Improvement on Communication Tests

Experimental Group

Name	Imp.	x_1	x_1^2
Mei	4.5	- .85	.72
Way.	3.0	-2.35	5.52
Est.	5.0	- .35	.12
Chr.	3.0	-2.35	5.52
Iri.	2.5	-2.85	8.12
Sue	5.5	.15	.02
Kei.	8.0	2.65	7.02
Sei.	7.5	2.15	4.62
Emi.	3.5	-1.85	3.42
Gil	5.0	- .35	.12
Vil.	5.0	- .35	.12
May.	9.0	3.65	13.32
Ed	7.5	2.15	4.62
Dav.	3.5	-1.85	3.42
Tak.	5.0	.35	.12
Car.	6.5	1.15	1.32
Ton.	7.0	1.65	2.72
	91		$\Sigma x_1^2=60.84$

$N_1=17$
$M_1=5.35$

Control Group

Name	Imp.	x_2	x_2^2
Shi.	4.0	.37	.14
Hou.	6.0	2.37	5.62
Khr.	4.0	.37	.14
Tos.	2.0	-1.63	2.66
J-L.	1.5	-2.13	4.54
Lan.	6.0	2.36	5.62
Der.	5.5	1.87	3.50
Kei.	2.0	-1.63	2.66
Hir.	2.5	-1.13	1.28
Tak.	4.5	.87	.76
Dav.	4.0	.37	.14
Gra.	1.5	-2.13	4.54
	43.5		$\Sigma x_2^2=31.60$

$N_2=12$
$M_2=3.63$

$$df = (N_1-1) + (N_2-1) = 27$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{\Sigma x_1^2 + \Sigma x_2^2}{(N_1-1)+(N_2-1)}} = \sqrt{\frac{60.84 + 31.60}{27}} = 1.85$$

$$D = M_1 - M_2 = 5.35 - 3.63 = 1.72$$

$$SE = \sqrt{\frac{S^2}{N_1} + \frac{S^2}{N_2}} = \sqrt{\frac{(1.85)^2}{17} + \frac{(1.85)^2}{12}} = 69$$

$$t = \frac{D}{SE} = \frac{1.72}{.69} = 2.49$$ *(Significant at .02)*

APPENDIX C

DATA REGARDING STUDENTS

THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Name	Sex	Age	Native Language	Time in U.S. at the Beginning of Program	Studying English	Socio-Economic Background*
Mei	F	25	Chinese	1 week	3	low
Way	M	24	Chinese	4 months	5	low
Est	F	28	Chinese	1 week	6	low
Chr	M	22	Chinese	4 months	5	middle
Iri	F	22	Tahitian	1 week	5	low
Sue	F	27	Portuguese	1 week	0	low
Kei	F	21	Japanese	1 week	3	low
Sei	F	22	Japanese	4 months	2	middle-low
Emi	F	24	Taiwanese	1 day	1	low
Gil	F	22	Korean	1 week	5	low
Vil	M	20	Tongan	2 years (speaking Tongan)	5	low
May	F	20	Japanese	1 day	7	low
Ed	M	32	Taiwanese	1 day	1	low
Dav	M	26	Chinese	1 week	5	low
Tak	M	17	Japanese	4 months	7	low
Car	F	23	Chinese	1 week	7	low
Ton	F	27	Tagalog	5 days	5	middle-low
AVERAGE		23.6		1 month 4 days (excluding Vil)	4.2	low

*Students own evaluation

THE CONTROL GROUP

Name	Sex	Age	Native Language	Time in U.S. at the Beginning of Program	Studying English*	Socio-Economic Background*
Shi	M	23	Japanese	1 week	8	middle-low
Hou	F	24	Vietnamese	1 week	2	middle
Khr	F	21	Chinese	1 week	8	low
Tos	M	24	Japanese	1 week	6	low
J-L	M	18	French	4 months	1	middle
Lan	F	25	Chinese	1 week	6	low
Der	F	22	Portuguese	5 months	2	low
Kei	F	22	Japanese	1 week	7	low
Hir	M	22	Japanese	1 week	9	low
Tak	M	25	Japanese	4 months	4	low
Dav	M	22	Chinese	1 week	5	low
Gra	F	46	Samoan	6 years (speaking Samoan)	5	low
AVERAGE		24.5		1 month 10 days (excluding Gra)	5.25	low

*Students own evaluation

APPENDIX D

OUTLINE OF COMMUNICATION EXERCISES FOR CLASSROOM USE

1. GOALS AND ANALYSIS

I. Task Management Goals

These relate to regulation of student performance.

A. Examples

1. Mechanical constraints
    - a. Uniformity of performance over students. "All students will...."
    - b. Cooperation
    - c. Use of English
    - d. Follow directions
    - e. Ask questions

2. Psychological constraints
    - a. Synthesis
        - (1) Communicative interaction in English
        - (2) Make a coherent story
        - (3) Describe a scene
        - (4) Report on a topic of interest
        - (5) Ask interview questions
    - b. Evaluation
        - (1) Students report impressions of the exercise
        - (2) Express opinions (students)

3. Linguistic constraints
    Control over language forms, structures, et cetera used.

B. Student evaluation methods

An efficient way of evaluating overt student performance is to gain control over the process through the teachers via modeling. An overall subjective rating of the teacher gives a good indication of how well these goals were met. They also can identify individuals who "were not following along with the class." After-action checklists would be helpful.

II. Language Features Goals

A. Examples

1. Be and Modal and Do support with other verbs
2. Do in question
3. Imperative forms with degrees of politeness
4. Definite nouns

5. Indefinite nouns
6. Essay organization
7. Organization, short story
8. Pronoun substitutions
9. Pronunciation
10. Structures
11. Subjunctive constructions
12. Present tense
13. Present-progressive tense
14. Tenses, tense substitutions
15. Wh questions with Be
16. Vocabulary

B. Student evaluation methods

1. Tape-record games and skits for in-depth analysis

2. Checklists of language features
    a. Opportunity to respond
    b. Occurrence of a response
    c. Evaluation of the response

3. Written and oral tests based on language features to evaluate:
    (1) the overall performance of the groups, and
    (2) the performance of individual students.

III. Affective Goals

A. Examples

1. All students develop confidence in working with others through the use of English.

2. Students feel more at ease with each other and with their teacher.

B. Student Evaluation methods

1. A semantic differential technique (bi-polar adjectives) are useful here because of its minimal dependence on language. Caution should be taken to use only adjectives whose meaning will not be confused by ESL students. The attitudinal objects used could be:
    (1) the exercise as a whole,
    (2) the other people in student dyads,
    (3) the teachers,
    (4) the psychological constraint of the game, for example, the idea of demonstrating how to make something, or
    (5) any other readily identifiable and

communicable feature of the conversational exercise.

2. Brief questionaires were useful devices to solicit impressions on specific questions or to provide a means of self-expression.

2. COMMUNICATION EXERCISES

Conversational Exercise	Procedure	Goal
I. First introductions	1. Group sits in a circle. 2. A teacher says: a. "My name is ___," and asks the other: b. "What's your name?" The other teacher answers: "My name is ___." The first teacher asks: c. "Where are you from?" The other teacher answers: "I'm from the United States." 3. The second teacher asks the first: "Where are you from?" The first answers, "I'm from America, too." 4. The second teacher asks the first student: "What's your name?" 5. The student responds: "My name is ___." 6. The teachers do not correct; they may repeat questions. 7. The second teacher asks: "Where are you from?" 8. The student responds: "I'm from ___." 9. The teacher gestures the students to continue asking the two questions around the circle until the goal is	All students ask and answer questions.

Conversational Exercise	Procedure	Goal
I. (Continued) First introductions	reached. 10. Gesture different students to ask the questions to others around the circle. 11. Introduce the next exercise.	
II. About myself	1. A teacher (referring to notes) gives a short talk (two minutes) about himself, his family, and his home town. 2. A second teacher asks the first teacher three questions about himself, his family, or his home town. 3. The second teacher follows Step 1. 4. The first teacher follows Step 2. 5. The groups may be divided here. 6. Students follow teachers' examples. 7. Introduce next exercise.	1. Student acquires vocabulary and uses structures which occur as he meets other Americans. 2. Wh questions with Be and use of Do in questions used.
III. The interview	1. The first teacher interviews the second teacher asking about: a. His family, and b. His home town.	1. All students interview and report and are interviewed.

Conversational Exercise	Procedure	Goal
III. (Continued) The interview	2. The first teacher then turns to the class and gives a report of the second teacher.	2. All students ask reporting students questions about report.
	3. Teachers exchange roles and repeat steps (1) and (2).	3. Students use pronoun and tense substitutions with question and answer structures.
	4. The groups may be divided here.	
	5. Teacher asks and gestures students to all interview each other.	
	6. Teacher asks for student reports.	
	7. Teacher asks reporting student questions about fellow student being reported.	
	8. Reporting student asks his fellow student and responds to the teacher's question.	
	9. Teacher asks and gestures other students to ask questions.	
	10. Teacher asks and gestures other students to give reports.	
	11. Introduce next exercise.	
IV. American folk songs and action songs	1. Teacher sings an American folk song.	1. Students feel more at ease with each

Conversational Exercise	Procedure	Goal
IV. (Continued) American folk songs and action songs	2. Teacher tells the song and explains any different idioms or vocabulary items. 3. Students sing along with the teacher. 4. The teacher should always participate with the students. 5. Keep the goal in mind. 6. Introduce the next exercise.	other and with their teacher. 2. Some vocabulary, pronunciation and structural acquisition possible.
V. My hobby/sport	1. Teacher gives report on his favorite hobby or sport. 2. Other teacher asks three questions 3. Teachers switch roles and repeat Steps (1) and (2). 4. The groups are divided. 5. Students report and ask each other about their hobbies (the interview exercise (3) may be used in connection with this exercise). 6. Continue until goal is reached. 7. Introduce next exercise.	1. All students report on a topic in which they have special interest or skill. 2. Use of different tenses comes into play.
VI. Classroom drama or skit preparation	(Teachers plan, produce, and perform a skit first; followed	1. All students develop confidence

Conversational Exercise	Procedure	Goal
VI. (Continued) Classroom drama or skit preparation	by students.) 1. Choose a "stage manager" and "secretary." 2. Select: a. A time, b. A place, and c. The characters to be portrayed; d. What phase of the characters' lives to be performed; e. The problem, and f. A (false) solution to the problem. 3. Outline the skit. 4. Decide on props, special effects, et cetera. 5. Write the lines. 6. Practice. 7. Arrange for publicity, programs and refreshments. 8. Give the performance.	in working with others through the use of English. 2. All students must use English for the cooperation necessary to produce a skit. 3. All phases of grammar and syntax are covered.
VII. How to make: (kites, flower arrangements, gliders, food specialty, macrome, coconut hats, et cetera.)	1. Two teachers give a demonstration of how to make something. One teacher talks about one phase and the other talks about another phase of the activity.	1. All students must cooperate with each other to plan and give the demonstrations. 2. All students must follow directions carefully to complete

Conversational Exercise	Procedure	Goal
VII. (Continued) How to make: (kites, etc.)	2. They teach the class how to make something by providing the materials and instruction. 3. The groups are divided. 4. Students follow the teacher's examples. 5. Teachers encourage questioning. 6. Continue until the goal is reached. 7. Introduce the next exercise.	each project. 3. Imperative forms with degrees of politeness used.
VIII. Describe a simple picture	1. The teacher looks at a picture which the entire class can see. 2. He describes it to the other teacher who cannot see it. 3. The second teacher makes a "stick" drawing of the picture on the blackboard. 4. The teachers switch roles and follow steps (1), (2), and (3). 5. Divide the groups. 6. Pass out paper to the groups. 7. Give one student a picture without letting the class see it. 8. Ask him to describe it.	1. All students describe scenes. 2. The present and the present-progressive tenses are used. Definite and indefinite nouns will also be substituted.

Conversational Exercise	Procedure	Goal
VIII. (Continued) Describe a simple picture.	9. Ask the students to draw what is described. 10. Continue until the goal is reached. 11. Introduce the next exercise.	
IX. Stick figure chain story	1. Teacher shows class a stick figure (running, smiling, dancing, singing, et cetera.) 2. He begins a story about the figure by setting the time and place and situation and stops. 3. The second teacher picks up the story for about thirty seconds and stops. 4. The second teacher must then conclude the story. 5. The teachers switch roles and follow Steps (1) to (4). 6. The class groups are divided. 7. The teacher hands a student a stick figure picture. The student begins the story. 8. Every thirty seconds or so the teacher says, "stop." (Do not interrupt a sentence.)	1. Each student should begin, carry and conclude a story. 2. Student develop a typical English short story or essay organizational pattern (i.e., introduction, body (logical development), and conclusion).

Conversational Exercise	Procedure	Goal
IX. (Continued) Stick figure chain story	9. The story is carried until a conclusion can be given. 10. Another student begins a story with a different "stick figure." 11. Continue until the goal is reached. 12. Introduce the next exercise.	
X. Who am I? (A variant exercise is "What animal am I?")	1. Teacher pretends to be some famous person living or dead. 2. A second teacher asks Yes-No questions to guess who. 3. Teachers switch roles and follow Steps (1) and (2). 4. Groups are divided. 5. Someone is chosen to be "it." He pretends to be someone known to the whole group. 6. Each student asks him one Yes-No question. 7. After ten questions are asked, any student may ask any Yes-No question. 8. Continue until goals are reached; each student must be "it" once. 9. Introduce the next exercise.	1. Students become familiar with organizational hierarchies of people. 2. All students ask and answer Yes-No questions with Be and Modal and Do support with other verbs.

Conversational Exercise	Procedure	Goal
XI. "What od you do?"	1. Teacher chooses any occupation. 2. Second teacher asks questions to determine his job. He may ask Yes-No or any Wh question except "What do you do?" 3. The first teacher must tell the truth but not necessarily the whole truth. 4. Teachers switch roles and follow Steps (1), (2), and (3). 5. Divide the groups. 6. Someone is chosen "it;" he chooses an occupation. 7. Each student asks him one Yes-No or Wh question (except "What do you do?") until ten questions are asked. 8. After ten questions are asked, any student may ask any question except "What do you do?" 9. Continue until everyone has had his turn to be "it." 10. Introduce the next exercise.	All students ask and answer Wh and Yes-No questions with Be, Modals, and Do support with other verbs.
XII. Spend a dollar (A variant of this exercise is to have	1. The teachers give each other a dollar and discuss how to spend them. What do they	All students must interact with English speakers in the

Conversational Exercise	Procedure	Goal
XII. (Continued) students open a savings account in a local bank with the dollar)	need? Combine the money or spend it separately. 2. One teacher pretends to be a store clerk and the other asks how much different things cost. 3. Divide into groups. 4. Each student is given an envelope with a dollar and told they are going to visit the nearby shopping center. 5. They are encouraged to discuss how to spend the money. They must spend it and bring the item(s) purchased to class. 6. Exercise 3 "The interview" works well with this exercise. 7. The teacher pretends to be a store clerk and the students ask the price and contents of different items. 8. Take students to the nearest shopping center or campus book store. 9. Return to class where students report on their purchases.	community.

Conversational Exercise	Procedure	Goal
XIII. What would you do?	1. One teacher reads a situation to another teacher and asks: "What would you do?" 2. The second teacher responds. 3. With a different situation, the teachers switch roles and do Steps (1) and (2). 4. Classes are divided. 5. All students are given slips of paper with situations on them. 6. One by one they read them and respond. 7. (Exercise 3 "The interview" works well with this exercise.) 8. Combine until the goal is reached. 9. Introduce the next exercise.	All students use subjunctive constructions.
XIV. An excursion	1. Tell students that the group is going on an excursion next week. 2. Use the interview exercise (Exercise 3) to determine (a) where they'd like to go; (b) what they'd like to see; (c) when should the group go; (d) how should the group get there; etc. 3. Get a consensus of opinion.	All students express opinions about the excursion and report on impressions of it.

Conversational Exercise	Procedure	Goal
XIV. (Continued) An excursion	4. Plan the excursion. 5. Give EVERYONE an assignment. 6. Take the excursion. 7. Return to class and ask students to report on the excursion. 8. Introduce the next exercise.	